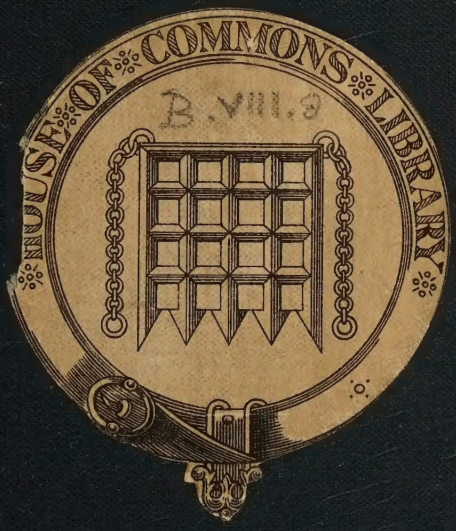
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THE
TRAINING OF TEACHERS
IN ENGLAND AND WALES

'The problem of the world is an educational one.' FROEBEL.

'It is the master that makes the school.' GUIZOT.

THE GARTON FOUNDATION

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

A Critical Survey

BY

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PREFACE

THE critical survey contained in the following pages is the result of an inquiry instituted by the Garton Foundation in the autumn of 1921 and completed early in 1923. The Trustees of the Foundation (the Rt. Hon. Earl of Balfour, K.G., O.M., the Rt. Hon. Viscount Esher, G.C.B., G.C.V.O., and Sir Richard Garton, G.B.E.) have permitted the devotion of its staff and resources to the work in the belief that sincere and intelligent inquiry into the larger problems of education is a national necessity. Readers of an earlier 'Memorandum on the Industrial Situation after the War', published by the Foundation in 1916, will remember that among the constructive measures suggested by the authors a prominent place was given to the need for efficiency in our educational system, and this volume may be regarded as a development of the same line of thought.

In the choice of subject for inquiry from so wide a field the Trustees were influenced by a sense of the fundamental character and urgency of the problems connected with the Training of Teachers, and the fact that it has since become necessary to appoint a Departmental Committee 'to review the arrangements for the Training of Teachers in Public Elementary Schools' shows that they were not mistaken in their judgement. Following a procedure which proved exceedingly helpful in the preparation of the earlier Memorandum, this survey has been submitted in proof to educationists of wide and varied experience, as well as to others interested in the system, and has subsequently been revised in the light of their criticisms and suggestions. A number of these are, by the courtesy of the

writers, printed as an Appendix to the present volume. Throughout the inquiry, too, the Trustees and Mr. Lance Jones have had the advantage of consultation with Mr. Thomas Jones and Mr. R. H. Tawney, whose wide experience has rendered their assistance and advice of great value.

The scope and purpose of the survey are set out by the author in the introduction, and the conclusions are summarized in a convenient form in a final chapter. While the Trustees do not in any way identify themselves with these conclusions, they believe that nothing but good can come of submitting them to the test of public discussion, and for this the present moment seems highly opportune. The reception accorded to this volume on its preliminary circulation has been such as to encourage its publication and to confirm the Trustees in their opinion that a survey of the field of Teacher Training as a whole is the first step to be taken by those who would seek a solution of its many problems.

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INTRODUCTION

Among the movements which the future historian of social development in England will find it necessary to record as characteristic of the first quarter of the twentieth century will be a steadily increasing interest in all that concerns the education of the people. Probably at no time has this interest been so widespread as it is to-day. Critics, whether propagandists or reactionaries, there have always been, but the change whereby the proverbial indifference of the mass of the people is rapidly being converted into active interest is a phenomenon hitherto unknown. The signs of it are everywhere—the demand for admission to Secondary Schools, publicity in the press and on the platform, questions in the House of Commons, the interest of ratepayers in the proceedings of Local Education Authorities and even of villagers in village schools, alike are indicative of the larger place that problems of education, national and local, are gradually filling in men's minds. Nor is the change merely the fruit of renewed zeal on the part of enthusiasts, or the urgent demands of economists ; rather it is a natural consequence of the gradual expansion of that system of popular education of which the foundations were laid barely a century ago.

No one who pays other than lip service to the welfare of his country can fail to welcome the change, for in this new and widespread interest lies the surest hope for the future. But zeal without knowledge may injure the very cause which it hopes to serve, and it requires more than a desire for efficiency or even a conviction that education is ' the most important constructive undertaking in a modern state ', to make a competent critic or a wise reformer. Indeed we would suggest that the great need of the moment is knowledge, and in this opinion we are confirmed by letters which have recently appeared in the correspondence columns of *The Times*.

Thus Mr. W. L. Hichens writes :

' Criticisms of the present system are many and various. . . . Now is the time to take stock of the position and to satisfy the

public mind either that its apprehensions are groundless or that full and sufficient steps will be taken to ensure that our educational system is second to none in the world.' [1]

Even more explicit is the Principal of Birmingham University, who writes :

'The situation briefly is this. A great mass of lay men and women, with whom the ultimate decision lies, are genuinely puzzled about the whole problem of national education . . . they are not in possession of agreed facts on which to base conclusions, nor do they know where or how to obtain them ; they feel that important issues are at stake and that the nation cannot afford to make mistakes either by wasteful expenditure or by wasteful economies : they are quite ready to make great sacrifices if they are convinced they are necessary.' [2]

Unfortunately for those who seek information, England is at the present time somewhat lacking in literature descriptive of the various parts of her educational system. Many of the publications of this type are rapidly becoming out of date, and the 'layman' has neither the time nor the inclination to penetrate the mysteries and reconcile the anomalies of Blue Books, or peruse the pages of educational reports and journals, nor the opportunity of seeing with his own eyes what is being done in our schools and other educational institutions. It is, therefore, with the hope of conveying some idea of the present position that a critical survey of one portion of the field has been prepared, and if by this means a deeper, because more enlightened, interest can be aroused in the problems which are discussed, the presence of one at least of the factors essential to sound development will have been secured.

Of the many questions which present themselves to the inquirer none are more important than those which centre around the teacher—the commonest of platitudes, no doubt, but the greater the platitude, the greater the truth which it embodies. There is need, too, that this truth should be re-emphasized. As educational systems become increasingly complex, problems of organization, administration, and finance loom ever larger and

[1] *The Times*, Tuesday, 17 October 1922. Mr. W. L. Hichens is a Director of Messrs. Cammell, Laird, Ltd.

[2] *The Times* Educational Supplement, 28 October and 4 November 1922. Letters from Principal C. Grant Robertson.

larger; but important though these must always be, they are in the last resort subsidiary to the main problem of the relation between teacher and child.

'Educational administration', says an eminent Director of Education, 'is one of those subsidiary services which are in themselves without value except in so far as they secure the success of their object. Learning and teaching are the first and chief acts of education. . . .'[1] Furthermore, he adds, the immediate administration by officials is simply 'the work of shouldering the burden of the teachers. These should be set free to educate with as few hindrances as possible. . . . Education is for the pupils first and last: all the rest of us are their servants.'[2]

So too M. Guizot, when introducing the Law of 1833 in the French Chamber of Deputies, had in mind the same scale of values:

'All the provisions hitherto described (for the organization of primary and higher primary instruction) would be of no effect if we took no pains to procure for the public school thus constituted an able master worthy of the high vocation of instructing the people. It cannot be too often repeated that it is the master that makes the school.'[3]

Few questions are more central in education and therefore more closely interwoven with others than those which concern the teacher. For this reason, as well as for lack of time and space, it is necessary to limit the scope of the present discussion: we shall deal principally with problems which arise in connexion with the recruiting and preparation of teachers of all grades for their work in the schools.

Briefly then this survey presents a critical examination of existing arrangements for the education and training of teachers in England and Wales. To understand the system aright it is necessary to trace its development very briefly: this will be done in the first chapter. Then will follow a careful examination of the arrangements for the preliminary education and the professional training of the more important groups of teachers,

[1] Balfour, Graham, *Educational Administration*, p. 1.
[2] Ibid., pp. 35–6.
[3] H. Barnard, *American Journal of Education*, vol. xx, pp. 236–7.

elementary and secondary, the teachers of younger children and of certain special subjects, as well as the arrangements made for the further training of teachers in service. From this detailed examination we shall turn to the consideration of a few special problems—the position of the unqualified teacher, and the all-important questions of finance and of supply. Comparisons with Scotland will be made from time to time, and, finally, after describing the teacher-training systems of two typical foreign and democratic communities, and experiments in training which have been made in our own country in recent years, we shall pass to a discussion of various suggestions which have been made for the future, and attempt to indicate what seem to be the most practicable as well as the soundest lines of advance.

For such a treatment of the subject no special merit is claimed beyond the fact that many problems usually discussed independently are here brought together and examined in relation to each other, a method which has many advantages, not the least being the truer proportion which the various problems assume. There will naturally be many, both administrators and teachers, who will find in these pages much that is familiar and a great deal with which they may not be in agreement. Nevertheless they may find it helpful as well as interesting to review the question as a whole. For the larger public which is seeking for information it is hoped that the book may provide a ready means of ascertaining the main features and problems of our teacher training system.

The part of the field which we are to examine has long been a battleground for the expert, and many questions call for discussion. What, for example, should be the purpose of professional training?—its character and duration? Where should it be given, and by whom? How far should it be differentiated in accordance with the type of school in which the intending teacher proposes to serve? At what age should it commence?—and is a system of apprenticeship desirable?

Of more general interest are problems of finance and supply. What is the cost of the existing system, and what its results? To what extent is the cost borne by public funds, and how far is the public receiving value for money? How should the cost be distributed? Whence and in what way are the ranks of the

teaching profession recruited? What is the position as to demand and supply, and what measures have hitherto been adopted for dealing with an excess or deficiency of teachers? What are the ultimate factors determining demand and supply? In few, if any, of these questions is there agreement; on most of them the divergence of opinion is marked. Nor do they by any means exhaust the list of debatable topics. Others will appear as we proceed, and though it would need a far more extensive treatise than this purports to be to discuss even these few questions exhaustively, some answer will be attempted to each.

Great care has been taken to ensure that the facts contained in this survey are correct, and wherever possible the source of information has been stated. Ample use has been made of available documentary evidence, but since in an educational system like our own the details and the spirit in which they are carried out are all important, every opportunity has been taken of following out its working by visits to training institutions, by personal interviews and by correspondence with administrators, with principals and other members of the staffs of Training Colleges and University Training Departments, with teachers of every type and in every stage of preparation, teachers of experience and interested critics of the system in other walks of life. To enumerate those who have been consulted in this way would be a lengthy task and to select would be invidious where all have been so ready to help and advise.

Of necessity the reader will find both assumptions and omissions. Thus it is assumed that he already possesses sufficient knowledge of the English system of educational administration by means of Central and Local Authorities to obviate any necessity for a detailed explanation. So also it is assumed that the prevailing distinction between elementary and secondary education will be sufficiently understood by him to enable him to appreciate the references which are constantly made to each. And, furthermore, it has been assumed that for teachers as for the members of other professions some preparation is needed—even though they be of the select company of ' teachers by the grace of God ', few and far between in any generation.

Two questions have been dealt with incidentally rather than directly. The first is the momentous question of the remunera-

tion of teachers—momentous if only because a large proportion of the total expenditure on education goes in payment of salaries. To have discussed this in detail would have diverted us from our main purpose, and it has seemed wiser to content ourselves with various allusions to the more general aspects of this question, and with a summary of the main facts of the present position in a convenient form in the Appendix.[1] In the same way, although no independent consideration has been given to the various aspects of the present economy campaign in so far as it affects education, frequent reference will be made to it in the later chapters, and, indeed, the whole purpose of the inquiry is to ensure that efficiency which is the surest economy at all times.

There are other questions, too, which it would have been of great interest to discuss, but which could not conveniently be included without unduly lengthening the survey. The professional organization of teachers, the advanced study of education by the Universities, the training of teachers for rural schools, are some of these: to none of them can we venture more than passing allusions. Finally, in our brief excursion beyond the confines of our island for purposes of comparison we have thought it advisable to limit ourselves to the main features in two typical countries rather than to indicate in a more summary fashion the characteristics of a larger number of systems.

A word of advice may be acceptable to the reader who approaches the subject for the first time. The book is planned as a whole, and the chapters are intended to be read in sequence; but, realizing that the topics discussed in them may prove of unequal interest to many, an attempt has been made to provide in each chapter a reasonably complete though brief treatment of that portion of the subject with which it deals. By this means and by the addition of references, appendices, and a bibliography, it is hoped to enhance the value of the survey, and make it serviceable both as a work of reference and also as an introduction to afuller study of the various problems which are discussed. And should the future bring considerable changes in our system, it may perchance acquire a further value as a record of the state of affairs in a period of transition.

To review an educational system, or any part of it, in a time

[1] Appendix C.

of national stress is a task of especial difficulty. Not merely have temporary adaptations to varying conditions to be taken into account, but there is the greater difficulty of appreciating at their true value the forces and the motives which are making for change. Throughout this survey attention has been mainly directed to those factors in the situation which seemed to be of permanent significance, and while no claim is made to completeness or freedom from error, it is hoped that the mere attempt to bring together the many threads which make the warp and the woof of these all-important questions may prove of service to the cause of efficiency in English education.

I

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The student of the history of educational development can hardly fail to notice how much later England was than other European countries in evolving a national system. Germany, France, Switzerland all took up the task before her, and in Germany in particular the work of Francke at Halle in the seventeenth century,[1] and of Basedow at Dessau in the eighteenth,[2] had laid the foundation of a system of teacher training long before educators in this country had seriously applied themselves to the problem. Not that questions of this kind could be, or indeed were, wholly ignored. King Alfred's biographer records both the difficulties and the zeal of that monarch in obtaining teachers sufficiently educated for his purpose,[3] and the educational activities of the Church in the Middle Ages, though limited in scope and often repressive in character, resulted in the development of an organized system of licences for teachers and in the formation of teaching orders.[4] At a later date (1524) the Statutes of Manchester Grammar School prescribe the employment of what subsequently came to be known as monitors,[5] and John Brinsley, writing in 1612, gives us to understand that young teachers of this type were commonly employed in grammar schools of the time.[6] The importance of special training, moreover, was fully appreciated by an Elizabethan, Mulcaster, the first Head Master of Merchant Taylors' School, and by other educators in succeeding centuries. Mulcaster's suggestions have a strangely modern ring. Writing in 1581 he outlines a scheme for the establishment of a University with seven colleges, one of which was to be for the training of teachers. 'Why should not

[1] Monroe, *Brief Course in the History of Education*, p. 249.
[2] Ibid., p. 297.
[3] Asser, *Life of Alfred the Great*, ed. Stevenson, pp. 21, 59-63.
[4] Monroe, op. cit., ch. v; cf. De Montmorency, *State Intervention in English Education*, p. 10 et seq.
[5] Foster Watson, *English Grammar Schools to 1660*, p. 169.
[6] Brinsley, *Ludus Literarius*, ed. of 1627, p. 41.

teachers be well provided for', he asks, 'to continue their whole life in school, as Divines, Lawyers, Physicians do in their several professions? This trade requireth a particular college for these four causes. First for the subject being the mean to make or mar the whole fry of our State. Secondly for the number, whether of them that are to learn, or of them that are to teach. Thirdly for the necessity of the profession which may not be spared. Fourthly for the matter of their study which is comparable to the greatest of professions, for language, for judgement, for skill how to train, for variety in all points of learning.'[1] Arguments such as these have not lost their force even to-day, nor has the need for emphasizing them as yet disappeared.

It would be interesting to trace the history of this question of the supply and training of teachers through succeeding centuries, but for our present purpose a detailed examination of the period prior to the year 1800 is unnecessary, for it was not until the social problems arising out of the Industrial Revolution had forced themselves upon men's notice that the urgent need for a better system of popular education and an adequate supply of efficient teachers was realized by any except the very few. Within the next hundred years the foundations of our present system were laid down, and it will be advisable to spend some little time in examining the changes that took place during this period.

The nineteenth century was the century of Select Committees and of Royal Commissions on Education, and in following out the development of the teacher-training system during this and the first fourteen years of the following century, it will be convenient to summarize the various changes which took place round the reports of those particular bodies of Commissioners whose work most directly concerns us. These were the Commission of 1858–61, presided over by the Duke of Newcastle, the Commission of 1886–8 of which Sir Richard Cross was the Chairman, and the Commission which reported in 1895 and over which Mr. James Bryce (afterwards Lord Bryce) presided. The changes which have taken place since 1914 can more fittingly be dealt with in later chapters.

[1] Mulcaster's *Positions*, Quick's Reprint, pp. 248–9. Quoted in Quick's *Educational Reformers*, p. 101.

The Newcastle Commission (1858–61). Let us begin with the Newcastle Commission of 1858–61. By the terms of reference its duty was ' to inquire into the present state of popular education in England, and to consider and report what measures, if any, are required for the extension of sound and cheap elementary instruction to all classes of the people '.[1] There were many complaints, but little reliable information. To obtain this ten Assistant Commissioners were appointed to carry out investigations in ten specimen districts, two of these districts being agricultural, two manufacturing, two mining, two maritime, and two metropolitan.[2] As may be inferred from the nature of the terms of reference, the character of the teaching in schools was an important consideration, and, as a matter of fact, the Assistant Commissioners were instructed to ' inquire into the general condition of the schoolmasters in the district, whether their schools are public or private. With respect to public (i. e. State-aided) schools . . . to ascertain what has been the result of the system of education for masters adopted at the Normal Schools.[3] . . . You will also inquire,' the instructions continue, ' whether such teachers show a tendency to be dissatisfied with their position on account of its not opening to them a career of advancement, and to leave it in order to embrace other professions . . . and whether there appears to be any ground for the fear that the number of teachers holding certificates may become excessive. . . .' [4]

The fullness with which the Assistant Commissioners dealt with these points varies, but the information obtained agrees in its main features. An examination of the report of any one of them reveals at once the extent and the variety of the facilities for elementary education which had by this time sprung up in the country. There was a reasonable provision of schools according to the standards of the time,[5] but large numbers of

[1] *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. i, pp. 1–2.

[2] Ibid., p. 8, and see *Instructions to Assistant Commissioners*, vol. ii, pp. 7 et seq.

[3] Institutions for the training of teachers—now usually known in this country as Training Colleges.

[4] *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. ii, p. 16.

[5] The proportion of scholars in week-day schools of all kinds to the entire population was 1 in 7·7 or 12·99 per cent.; according to the returns obtained by the Assistant Commissioners the proportion for the specimen districts was

them were in need of efficient teachers, partly because the more progressive sought other avenues of promotion, but largely because the supply of trained teachers was inadequate. In every area the success of schools, public or private, under teachers who had been trained in Normal Schools, was markedly greater than that of schools not so fortunate.[1] Ample evidence as to the dissatisfaction of teachers was forthcoming, but although it was suggested to the Assistant Commissioners that Normal Schools were educating them too highly for their work, the majority were of the opinion that the remedy lay not in lowering the standard of education of the teacher but in raising that of the children. Thus in the district comprising the industrial area of North and South Staffordshire Mr. Coode found that trained masters and mistresses took more interest in teaching older pupils in evening schools, and expressed the view that dissatisfaction was inevitable so long as the general education of children could only be carried on to the age of eight or nine and therefore be but rudimentary.[2]

As to the Pupil Teacher system which they found in operation in state-aided schools the opinions of Assistant Commissioners varied on minor points, but it was generally agreed that the number of hours during which these young people were at work in the schools was excessive, that their training was often too mechanical and their general education unsatisfactory. Nevertheless, on the whole, the reports submitted were such as to dispose the Commissioners to endorse Matthew Arnold's eulogy of Pupil Teachers as 'the sinews of English primary instruction'.[3]

Before passing on to speak of the recommendations of the Commission, it will be advisable to indicate the steps by which the types of teacher referred to had arisen.

The early years of the nineteenth century saw the teacher question gradually forcing itself into prominence. Looking abroad, the philanthropic educationalists of this country could see already in existence Normal Schools for the training of

1 in 7·83. For other countries about the same time the figures were as follows: France 1 in 9, Holland 1 in 8·11, Prussia 1 in 6·27. *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. i, p. 573.

[1] *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. i, pp. 149 et seq.

[2] Ibid., vol. i, pp. 155 et seq.; vol. ii, pp. 269–73.

[3] Ibid., vol. i, pp. 106–7.

teachers, and visits to such schools made by Dr. Andrew Bell and Dr. Kay, afterwards Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth, were destined to be very fruitful for English education. To the former, in common with Lancaster, was due the introduction of the monitorial system;[1] to the latter the introduction of the Pupil Teacher system which replaced it.

Andrew Bell, a clergyman of the Church of England, was from 1789 to 1796 superintendent of an Orphan Asylum at Madras, into which institution he introduced monitorial instruction. When he returned to England he published an account of his system, and was fortunate enough to get it taken up by a new Society founded in 1811 and incorporated six years later under the title of 'The National Society for promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church'. One of the earliest acts of the Society was to establish a school in London for the double purpose of teaching children and of training teachers, both men and women, on the lines advocated by Bell. Almost simultaneously Joseph Lancaster, a Quaker, was engaged in developing the monitorial system on slightly different lines. Beginning in 1798 as a teacher of waifs and strays, whom he clothed as well as taught, he met with great success, and aided by his fellow Quakers, finally set up a school in Borough Road, London. The need for economy, coupled with a rapid increase in numbers, led Lancaster to make use of the older children as monitors, and from this time onward he systematically adopted this means of training lads to be teachers. As in the case of Bell, the work was placed on a firmer basis by the foundation of a Society, the Royal Lancasterian, in 1809, and, later, of the British and Foreign School Society in 1814.[2] Lancaster's connexion with the latter ceased in 1818; but the work steadily developed in accordance with his ideas. Thus, from evidence submitted to the Select Committee of 1834, we learn that at Borough Road picked monitors were put through a three months' course and were kept employed from five or six in the morning to nine or ten at night. Of this time no less

[1] More correctly a re-introduction. Cf. *supra*, p. 9.

[2] For a fuller account of the early history of the two societies see Adamson, *A Short History of Education*, ch. xiv. Binns, *A Century of Education*, ch. iii, gives a good account of Lancaster's educational activities. See also Meiklejohn, *An Old Educational Reformer, Dr. Andrew Bell.*

than six hours were spent each day in working as monitors in the school, the balance being assigned either to instruction or study. The excuse alleged for so intensive a course was the shortness of time during which the students remained at the College.[1] Small wonder that in some instances their health suffered.

The subjects studied were those taught to the children in the schools, and the training in teaching consisted in a preliminary study of 'the method', as embodied in a manual, followed by a period of two months spent in passing from class to class up the school, and learning by experience how to adapt 'the method' to varying conditions. After this course the young teachers were sent out to act as masters of schools and to train monitors in their turn. Several training schools, of a similar type, were also established in the provinces.[2]

The employment of monitors in Elementary Schools had already been tried on the Continent and abandoned; in England also it proved a failure. In a few of the larger town schools monitors received small salaries and so could be retained until fourteen or fifteen years of age; but in the majority of cases they were under twelve and at times even so young as eight or nine. Their function was to act as mouthpieces of the schoolmaster and convey to groups of pupils in his presence lessons which he had previously communicated to them.[3] Only in a very few instances was there any instruction and training given to these children with a view to preparing them for teaching as a career.

In estimating the value of early attempts to give the teacher some special preparation for his work, we must remember the exceedingly low level from which education in those days had to be raised. With schoolmasters who, as Macaulay averred a few years later, were mainly 'the refuse of other callings',[4] and a feverish desire on the part of reformers to bring the elements of

[1] *Select Committee on Education*, 1834: Minutes of Evidence, p. 17. See also Binns, pp. 136–7. Cf. *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. i, pp. 111–12.

[2] Binns, op. cit., ch. vii, p. 144. Also ch. viii.

[3] Salmon, *Joseph Lancaster*. See ch. iii for account of Lancaster's monitorial system. More fully described in successive editions of *The Lancasterian System and Improvements*. Birchenough's *History of Elementary Education*, pp. 214 et. seq., compares the monitorial systems of Lancaster and Bell in detail.

[4] Macaulay, Speech in the House of Commons, 19 April 1847.

instruction within reach of all, the tendency was to seek for quantity rather than quality, and to emphasize training rather than personality in the teacher. The training devised was such as would familiarize the young teacher with the simplest and speediest methods of imparting instruction, and education was regarded as essentially a mechanical process. Lancaster at Borough Road aimed at turning out fully trained teachers by the age of fifteen or seventeen, and though it would be difficult to imagine anything more mechanical than the preparation they had received, teachers so trained showed themselves immeasurably superior to others who had not been through the course.[1] So far at least the evidence was in favour of a continuance of the system, but its defects were too obvious to pass unnoticed, and within the next few years it was definitely abandoned.

Under the influence of educationists like Pestalozzi abroad, and Stow at home, men soon came to feel that youths of fifteen to eighteen were not sufficiently mature, and that much more was needed in the way of preparation than mere mechanical training. At Glasgow, where Stow's system was first developed, a twofold aim was kept in view. An attempt was made on the one hand to convey general knowledge to the students, and, on the other, to familiarize them with the principles underlying the methods of instruction and give them an opportunity of working out those principles in practice.[2] The average duration of Stow's course was eight to nine months; but in the case of candidates coming with poor academic qualifications a minimum period of eighteen months was required. Out of a forty-hour week some two-fifths of the time was devoted to observation of and practice in teaching, and at a later date Dr. Kay called the attention of a Select Committee to Stow's training institution as 'the most perfect school of this description'.[3] Dr. Kay, it is true, saw also that the problem of obtaining a sufficient supply of teachers was primarily an economic one, but the majority of reformers tended to overlook such considerations and to lay stress on the need for training.

[1] See p. 12, note 1.

[2] Kerr, *Scottish Education*, ch. xvi.

[3] *Report of the Select Committee on the Education of the Poorer Classes*, 1838, pars. 265–72. For Kay-Shuttleworth see recent Life by Frank Smith.

In 1835 the Committee of Council proposed to set up a State institution for this purpose.[1] Religious differences caused the plan to be abandoned; but Dr. Kay, nothing daunted, set to work with the aid of Mr. Tufnell to work out an entirely new system of training which should aim at developing character as well as intelligence, and proficiency in manual work as well as an acquaintance with the principles of teaching. The ideas underlying the scheme came from abroad; the spirit animating the students was to be the missionary spirit of Pestalozzi; the mode of life proposed for them to be that followed in certain training schools in France and Switzerland.[2] To put into practice the new ideas, an institution was established at Battersea, the forerunner of the present College. Two types of students were admitted; boys over thirteen years of age who were to follow a course of five years, and men of twenty to thirty who were to stay only one year. Academic subjects were selected and taught with a view to their use in schools, and much practical training was given both in teaching and also in industrial occupations suited to rural districts. The unsuitability of such a course as a preparation for work in town schools was soon recognized, and modifications adopted. At the end of 1843 the Battersea Normal School was transferred to the National Society.[3]

Following the failure of the project for a State Training College, the Committee of Council definitely abandoned the idea of undertaking the work of training teachers and adopted the policy of subsidizing the two societies already named. In 1839 a grant of £10,000, voted by Parliament four years earlier, and other sums allocated in the intervening years, were utilized in this way, and both organizations took in hand the improvement of their London Training Schools.[4] Diocesan Boards were already in existence and bestirred themselves to such good purpose that Training Colleges were almost immediately established in six Dioceses. From 1840 onwards there was a steady increase in the number of training institutions, largely owing to the policy of the Committee of Council in making building grants. These grants were at the rate of £50 per pupil

[1] Balfour, *Educational Systems of Great Britain*, p. 6.
[2] *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. i, pp. 109–10.
[3] Kay-Shuttleworth, *Four Periods of Public Education*, pp. 428–30.
[4] Balfour, op. cit., pp. 6–7.

to be accommodated, and were made on condition that the trust deed of the college was approved by the Committee, and that the college was open to inspection. The total amount received by individual colleges varied from £1,200 in one case to £8,200 in another.[1] The addition of maintenance grants in 1846 still further helped these institutions, and by 1860, when building grants ceased, there were thirty-four colleges providing accommodation for 2,388 students.[2]

It is not easy to convey more than a very general idea of the nature of the work done in Training Colleges during the first ten years of their existence. At the outset there existed a great deal of variety. The length of the courses provided varied from three months to three years, the age of students was as low as sixteen in some cases and as high as thirty-three in others, and the course of study might vary between the extremes of which Borough Road and St. Mark's, Chelsea, provided outstanding examples. St. Mark's, we are told, aimed chiefly at giving the student a general education; Borough Road seems to have concentrated on professional training.[3] In time the low attainments of the students on admission forced the latter to abandon its original plan and follow the example of other colleges.

The mere building of a Training College, or indeed of any other educational institution, will not at any time necessarily ensure that it will be filled with students; and the experience of the next few years soon showed how essential it was that other sources of supply should be opened up if candidates for training were to be forthcoming in sufficient numbers. Moreover, such candidates as came forward were of a very poor quality, and this, coupled with the urgent need for more and better teachers in the schools, forced men to seek some solution. This was found in the Pupil Teacher system, introduced in 1846 by Dr. Kay, after experiments in training monitors in Poor-Law Schools, and a visit to Holland in 1837. There he found an apprenticeship system established, which, if adopted in England, seemed to promise more and better qualified students for the new training institutions. The change was effected by Minute of

[1] *B. of E. Special Reports*, vol. ii, p. 528.
[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, p. 5.
[3] Ibid., p. 14.

the Privy Council, and earlier Minutes give the following description of a Pupil Teacher:

'A young teacher, in the first instance introduced to the notice of the Master by his good qualities, as one of the best instructed and most intelligent of the children; whose attainments and skill are full of promise; and who, having consented to remain at a low rate of remuneration in the school, is further rewarded by being enabled to avail himself of the opportunities afforded him for attaining practical skill in the art of teaching, by daily practice in the school, and by the gratuitous superintendence of his reading and studies by the Master, from whom he receives lessons on technical subjects of school instruction every evening.' [1]

The Minutes of 1846 set out the conditions of appointment and of employment in considerable detail. The Pupil Teacher was bound to the schoolmaster as an apprentice, and for this a model form of indenture was provided. The appointment was to begin at the age of thirteen and be for a period of five years, during which time the Committee of Council agreed to pay the apprentice-teacher on a rising scale of from £10 to £20. A further sum of £3 was payable to Head Teachers in respect of each Pupil Teacher instructed by them for seven and a half hours per week out of school hours. The subjects of instruction were to be those taught in the school and any others required by the young teacher in his or her annual examination. During school hours the Head Teacher was to afford the Pupil Teacher sufficient opportunities both for observing other teachers at work and also for practising the art of teaching. Care was to be exercised in the selection of apprentices, and of the teachers in whose schools they were to be placed. Not more than one Pupil Teacher was to be appointed in a school for each twenty-five scholars in attendance, and at the end of the period of apprenticeship there was to be freedom to choose some other employment if desired. A testimonial as to the satisfactory completion of apprenticeship could be obtained by the teacher if needed.[2] As a matter of fact, it was hoped that the best of the Pupil Teachers would pass into the Training Colleges and, to encourage them to do so, special grants known as 'Queen's Scholarships' were offered to those who undertook to reside for two or three years in such an institution.

[1] *B. of E. Circular 573*, 1907, p. 3.

[2] Ibid., p. 4.

These arrangements continued in force without material change until 1862, the year following the issue of the report of the Newcastle Commission. There were, it is true, slight modifications in the direction of greater stringency in the selection and continuance of the recognition of young teachers; small schools were excluded as unsuitable for training purposes; the ratio of Pupil Teachers to scholars was changed to one for every forty children in attendance, and not more than four apprentices could be placed in charge of one teacher.[1] In spite of these additional restrictions the number of Pupil Teachers in the schools increased to 2,000 in 1848: by 1861 the figure had reached 13,871, and the problem of securing a supply of entrants for Training Colleges appeared to have been solved.

The first batch of Pupil Teachers entered the Training Colleges in 1852, at a time when these institutions were experiencing many difficulties. Lack of candidates made their financial position highly unsatisfactory, and critics objected to them being merely places of higher education. These views prevailed. Syllabuses, which at first included a wide range of subjects, were restricted, and emphasis was again placed on the subjects which would be taught in Elementary Schools. A twenty-five per cent. restriction originally imposed on the number of Queen's Scholars which might be admitted was removed, and grants were made to enable colleges to improve their staffs.[2] These changes, coupled with the greater financial aid now forthcoming, appear to have produced the desired effect, and the Reverend F. Temple, after an inspection of Church Colleges in 1856, was able to report a considerable increase in efficiency.[3]

Financially the student who had passed through a college benefited. Subject to certain conditions as to the provision of a house and of a proportionate amount of salary by the Managers, the Committee of Council were willing to pay grants in respect of a trained teacher amounting to £15 to £20 for one year of training, £20 to £25 for two, and £25 to £30 for three,

[1] *Circ. 573*, pp. 4–5.

[2] Minute of Committee of Council, 20 August 1853. See *B. of E. Special Reports*, vol. ii, p. 509.

[3] *Minutes of Committee of Council*, 1856–7, p. 686. For an account of the instruction given in Training Colleges at this time see *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. i, pp. 115 et seq.

the exact amount being determined by the grade of certificate held.[1] After 1847 teachers who had not been to a Training College but had been successful in the Council's examination for acting teachers were also granted a certificate and were able to benefit in this way. Both classes of teachers were eligible for small pensions, not exceeding £30, which might be granted out of the £6,500 allocated by Parliament for this purpose.[2]

Such, then, were the arrangements for providing the schools with teachers, the results of which the Newcastle Commission was asked to evaluate. On the whole they approved of the system, but made several recommendations as to future policy which were afterwards adopted. Finding that State grants towards the salaries and cost of instruction of Pupil Teachers had proved a temptation to managers to staff their schools cheaply, the Commissioners suggested the substitution of a capitation grant based on the total number of scholars under instruction in each school. Managers should, they thought, be allowed an additional grant of *2s. 6d.* per head if one Pupil Teacher were employed for every thirty scholars in average attendance, a change which, as Kay-Shuttleworth reminded the Commissioners, would have the effect of reducing very materially the amount received by the managers towards this class of teacher. The Commissioners were further influenced in making the recommendation by the fact that the uniform rate of salary hitherto prevailing throughout the country had been found to be unsatisfactory, whereas the new arrangement would permit managers to make their own arrangements with Pupil Teachers.[3]

For Training Colleges few changes were recommended beyond certain modifications of hours and syllabuses, and a change in the method of granting certificates. It was suggested that after passing the annual College Examination students should be required to serve a probationary period of two years before a Certificate was issued, and that at intervals of five years thereafter the grade of certificate should be subject to revision in accordance with the success or otherwise of the teacher.

[1] Regns. 21 December 1846. *B. of E. Special Reports*, vol. ii, p. 505 (also Kay-Shuttleworth's *Four Periods of Public Education*, pp. 538–9).

[2] *B. of E. Special Reports*, vol. ii, p. 507 (Minute of 6 August 1851).

[3] *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. i, pp. 107–8.

For Elementary Schools in general the Commission recommended a system of capitation grants based on the results of an annual examination of the scholars in Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic.[1] To this and to the other recommendations mentioned above, Robert Lowe, appointed Vice-President of the Council in 1859, gave effect in the Revised Code presented to Parliament in 1861, and further modified by a Minute of 9 May 1862.[2]

The introduction of the principle of 'payment by results' was to prove in the end one of the most retrograde steps ever taken in English education. The immediate effect of the new regulations upon the staffing of schools was to lower the qualifications and to diminish the number of teachers employed. The total number of Pupil Teachers fell from 13,871 in 1861 to 8,866 in 1866, a drop of 5,000 in five years. Other and equally serious results of the change were noted by Inspectors in their reports. Pupil Teachers were intending to leave the profession at the end of their engagement, and Head Teachers were alleged to be losing all interest either in securing additional recruits or in the success of such as came forward. The decline in numbers and in attainments was such that the standard of the Queen's Scholarship examination had to be lowered in 1865–6, and—worst of all—there was a possibility of a return to the discredited monitorial system.[3]

For Training Colleges the effects were equally unfortunate. A portion of the grant for instruction was made to depend on the degree of success obtained by students in the annual examination. This, added to the restricted character of the syllabus, tended to enhance still further the characteristic defects of the training and to intensify the narrowness of outlook which was the inevitable result of a system of segregation.

The Cross Commission (1886–8). The period which elapsed between the report of the Newcastle Commission and the appointment of the Cross Commission in 1886 was one of great educational activity. Inquiries were made into the organization and efficiency of the nine great Public Schools, of the Endowed

[1] *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. i, pp. 544–7.

[2] Balfour, op. cit., pp. 15–17. Matthew Arnold's *Reports on Elementary Schools*, 1852–82, Appendix K (1910 ed.), gives the revised Code in full.

[3] *B. of E. Circular 573*, p. 6.

Schools, and of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. The Education Act of 1870, establishing School Boards, had led to a rapid increase in the facilities for elementary education, and had put to a severe test the arrangements for staffing the schools which have just been described. By Acts of 1876 and 1880 school attendance was made compulsory, subject to certain limits of age and attendance; the financial position of teachers steadily improved, and more and more adults were being employed in the schools. Everything tended to make people question the adequacy and the suitability of existing methods of recruiting teachers and fitting them for their work, and the Cross Commissioners, instructed as they were to inquire into the working of the Elementary Education Acts of England and Wales, found it necessary to pass the whole system under review.

From the outset the changes introduced by Mr. Lowe in 1861–2 met with adverse criticism. The personal relationship existing hitherto between master and apprentice had been broken down, salaries of Pupil Teachers showed a marked decline, and gradually the Education Department (which had replaced the Committee of Council in 1856) [1] found it necessary to revert in some measure to an earlier policy. Additional capitation grants of 1*s.* 4*d.* per head were allowed to schools with a strengthened staff (including for this purpose Pupil Teachers) and grants of 40*s.* to 60*s.* were also made on account of each Pupil Teacher passing fairly well in his annual examination. The distribution of the latter grants between the Head Teacher and the Pupil Teacher was left to the Managers of the schools.[2]

On the intellectual side the criticisms of Matthew Arnold and his fellow inspectors as to the low standard of education attained by candidates for admission to Training Colleges bore fruit,[3] and within a few years of the establishment of School Boards a system of central classes for the instruction of Pupil Teachers was introduced and spread rapidly. London led the way, and, after some six years' controversy with the Education Department, succeeded in obtaining important modifications in the regulations. Under the agreement finally arrived at, the

[1] Balfour, op. cit., p. 13. [2] *Circ.* 573, p. 6.

[3] *Newcastle Commission Report*, vol. i, p. 106. See also M. Arnold, *Reports*, pp. 16–17 and elsewhere.

apprenticeship period was to begin at fourteen years of age, with a probationary year between thirteen and fourteen, during which a boy or girl could not be employed more than half time in the school and must receive suitable instruction.[1] The number of hours to be spent in teaching was reduced to twenty-five in any one week, and the time thus gained was to be devoted to the general education of the young teacher. Instruction in centres was accepted and any certificated teacher might take part in it. Under the London scheme central classes for Pupil Teachers were held for two hours on two evenings a week, and for some three and a half hours on Saturday mornings. Later the evening periods were done away with and instruction was given wholly in the mornings or afternoons, the additional time being gained by a reduction to fifteen of the number of hours to be spent in the Elementary School. Other large centres followed the example of London; but in rural areas the instruction continued to be given by the Head Teachers of the schools to which the Pupil Teachers were attached.

The Final Report of the Cross Commissioners was issued in 1888, but, whereas the general tendency of the report was in the direction of greater freedom and wider training for the teacher, on many points the majority and the minority held views markedly divergent.[2] The value of central classes, for example, was admitted by all; but, while the majority affirmed that 'having regard to moral qualifications there is no other available, or, as we prefer to say, equally trustworthy source from which an adequate supply of teachers is likely to be forthcoming',[3] and advocated a continuance of the Pupil Teacher system, the minority strongly dissented. They considered that this was the weakest link in the educational machinery, and that its continuance could only be justified if radical changes were made. The defenders of the system pointed to the necessity, as they alleged, for giving young teachers some familiarity with school management, but were met by the reminder that the weight of evidence showed that most of them finished their period of

[1] Code of 1882. Quoted in *Circ. 573*, p. 9, par. 15.

[2] For summary see *Circ. 573*, pp. 9–10, pars. 17–18.

[3] *Final Report of the Royal Commission* (Lord Cross's) *on Elementary Education*, 1888, p. 210, par. 28.

apprenticeship 'both poorly instructed and bad teachers'. The majority recommended the lowering of the age of admission to thirteen, the minority the raising of it to fifteen. For some time the Education Department, relying apparently upon the findings of the majority, took no action, but from that time onward the system was regarded as being on its trial, and successive modifications of the Code showed that it was the view of the minority which gradually gained acceptance. Central classes continued to be developed; instruction out of school hours was no longer required; and by circulars, inspection, and other means the Department endeavoured to raise the standard of instruction. Finally in 1896 a Departmental Committee was appointed to inquire into the working of the system and its effect on the supply of teachers.[1]

A somewhat similar divergence of view appeared on the question of Training Colleges. At Leeds and elsewhere a scheme had already been tried of training students in a University College instead of in a separate institution. This experiment was very tentatively approved by the majority, but strongly advocated by the minority. The latter saw that the adoption of such schemes could not fail to liberalize the education of the profession, to the great gain of the schools. The fact that an opportunity would also be afforded of breaking away from the existing denominational system was regarded as a further advantage; and in addition to the establishment of Training Departments of Universities and University Colleges the minority favoured the provision of Training Colleges by Local Authorities.[2] Again the opinion of the minority was destined to prevail. In 1890 the Education Department approved of the establishment of Day Training Colleges (now rather a misleading term owing to the provision of Hostels) in connexion with Universities and University Colleges.[3] Here intending teachers were to receive their general education in common with other pupils, and their professional training in a separate department. In this way it was hoped to overcome many of the very serious disadvantages under which the older colleges

[1] *Circ. 573*, p. 10, par. 21, and see also *infra*, pp. 26–7.
[2] *Cross Commission Report*, pp. 243 and 289.
[3] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, p. 29.

laboured—the lack of adequate staffs, the lower standard of intellectual training, insufficient facilities for practice in teaching, and especially the segregation which living in a separate institution necessarily involved. Perhaps the strongest argument put forward by the advocates of this change was the fact that the existing supply of places in colleges was inadequate, and that a much larger number of teachers would elect to pass through a course of training if they could so do in other than a denominational institution.[1] Restrictions on the number of students in the new departments were at first imposed but gradually abandoned, and by 1903 accommodation was recognized for more than 2,000 students.[2]

The association of 'students in training' with students following more general courses rendered inevitable some modification of the regulations of the Department as to their instruction and examination, and gradually examinations held by the Universities in general as distinct from professional subjects came to be accepted by the Department. These changes could not be confined to the newer colleges; and from 1901 onwards similar arrangements were sanctioned for the others, students being allowed to sit for the examinations of London University, for example, as external students, or for an alternative examination conducted by the College Staff under the general supervision of the Department.[3] With the abandoning of a uniform examination went of necessity the method hitherto adopted of grouping candidates in three classes on the result of their final examination; henceforward the list of successful students was arranged alphabetically, and those subjects were indicated in which individuals had passed with credit or with distinction.

The Bryce Commission (1894–5). This review of the modifications made in the Training College system has carried us up to and even beyond the date of the third of those Commissions, around whose work we agreed to centre our discussion. From many points of view the Commission presided over by Lord

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, p. 28.

[2] Ibid., p. 28. For an account of the University Day Training College movement see *The Department of Education in the University of Manchester, 1890–1911*, Article by M. E. Sadler.

[3] *B. of E. Reports*, 1912–13, p. 30; 1901–2, p. 45; 1902–3, p. 49; 1903–4, p. 51.

Bryce (then Mr. James Bryce) was the most important of the three. So far our attention has been confined to the methods of training Elementary Teachers. The Bryce Commission, appointed in 1894 to advise as to the establishment of a well-organized system of secondary education,[1] recommended changes which rendered possible still further developments in this connexion, and examined in some detail the position with reference to the professional training of teachers in Secondary Schools.

The principal recommendations of the Commission may be stated very briefly. They were the creation of one central authority for secondary education, and the appointment of an advisory council to assist the Minister in matters of general principle, in special cases of appeal, and in the institution of a register of teachers.[2] The new central authority, however, was to have little direct executive power; such powers were rather to be vested in newly created Local Education Authorities in Counties and County Boroughs. The year 1899 saw the creation of one central authority, the Board of Education, in place of the Education Department, the Science and Art Department, and the Charity Commission (so far as it dealt with education).[3] The following year saw the appointment of a Consultative Committee, bearing a faint resemblance to the advisory council suggested by the Commission;[4] and finally, when the anomalies which characterized English educational administration could no longer be tolerated, Local Education Authorities were established by making County and Borough Councils responsible for the organization and provision of education within their respective areas.[5] With the details of these changes we are not here concerned; the effect on the development of the teacher-training system of the country has been considerable.

The Departmental Committee appointed in 1896 to investigate the Pupil Teacher system published its report in 1898, and expressed the opinion that Pupil Teacher Centres should approximate more and more to Secondary Schools, with better staffs, a fuller corporate life, and a more liberal education. Furthermore, they believed that it would be beneficial to the

[1] *Bryce Commission Report*, 1895, vol. i, p. xxvi.
[2] Ibid., vol. i, pp. 256 et seq.
[3] Balfour, op. cit., pp. 31–2.
[4] Ibid., pp. 173–4.
[5] Ibid., pp. 33–7 and 171–2.

profession if an increasing number of recruits could be obtained from the ranks of those who had passed through a Secondary School.[1] The most complete attempt to carry out these ideas prior to 1902 was to be seen at Scarborough, where the Borough Council and the School Board co-operated in establishing a Secondary School in which intending teachers (as well as others) could receive a full-time secondary education until the age of sixteen, prior to spending two years as Pupil Teachers. During the latter period they continued to attend the Secondary School part time.[2]

But it was not until the establishment (by the Act of 1902) of Local Authorities responsible for all forms of education in a given area that any real advance was rendered possible. The influence of the Board of Education was steadily in the direction of a closer and closer association of the intending teacher with a Secondary School. By successive Minutes the regulations were modified so as to raise the age at which a Pupil Teacher's engagement might begin, and to lessen the time spent by him in the Elementary School, both modifications being prompted by the desire to give as long a period of secondary education as possible to future teachers. Encouragement was given to Local Education Authorities to establish a system of scholarships which would enable intending teachers to spend some time in a Secondary School, and to convert independent centres, wherever possible, into Secondary Schools. Such conversion was not intended to be a mere change of name, but a means of enabling candidates for the teaching profession to be educated alongside children preparing for other walks in life.[3] In practice Pupil Teacher Centres, when converted into Secondary Schools, did, in a number of cases, supply a long-felt want in the locality.

But the advocates of independent centres pleaded hard for their continuance. They urged the necessity for giving intending teachers some instruction in the principles of school management. More reasonably they objected that the part-time arrangement necessitated by the Pupil Teacher regulations could only be carried out by institutions specially organized for the purpose.

[1] *Circ. 573*, pp. 11–12 (quotes the Report of the Departmental Committee, 1896–8).

[2] Ibid., p. 14, par. 28.

[3] *B. of E. Report*, 1906, p. 52.

On the other hand, the staffs of Secondary Schools complained of the difficulties created by the presence of a body of pupils for only half the time, the difficulty of enabling them to take an adequate part in school life, and the diversion of time and energy at a critical period of life to matters outside the boy's or girl's general education.[1] These objections, particularly the last, could not be ignored, and by the regulations of 1907 the Board of Education inaugurated an alternative system.[2] Under the new arrangement the intending teacher might remain at the Secondary School until the age of seventeen or eighteen, or until some satisfactory examination had been passed. Thence he might either pass into a Public Elementary School to gain experience in teaching prior to entering on a course of professional training, or proceed direct to the Training College. One result of the introduction of this alternative was a steady decline in the number of Pupil Teachers recognized for the first time in a given year. Standing at 11,018 in 1906–7, the figure steadily fell, until by 1912–13 it had reached 1,469. Unfortunately this decline was not balanced by a corresponding increase in the number of those adopting the alternative, and representations were made to the Board that steps should be taken to revive the now-decaying Pupil Teacher system in a form suitable for areas with inadequate Secondary School accommodation. This the Board proceeded to do in 1913,[3] and the two systems still exist side by side. Each will be examined more fully in a subsequent chapter.

These changes in the preliminary education of Elementary Teachers were facilitated and accelerated rather than originated by the work of the Commissioners of 1895. They were concerned with problems of secondary education, and with the question of the professional training of teachers for Secondary Schools as one of these. Their discussion of the preliminary stages of this training is interesting, and the arrangements which they found in operation may be compared with those already described. Two methods of carrying out such preliminary training were reported by the Assistant Commissioners as existing at that time in Secondary Schools. The one, known as apprenticeship,

[1] *Circ. 573*, pp. 23–4.
[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1906–7, p. 52.
[3] Ibid., 1912–13, p. 156.

had been approved by the Head Masters' Conference as far back as 1873, and involved the giving up of the whole of the learner's time to the study and practice of the profession after he had been equipped with a good general knowledge of his subject. This method apparently was, at that time, still regarded as on its trial, and Head Teachers were finding considerable difficulty in combining the satisfactory training of apprentices with their other duties. Among the suggestions put forward for the improvement of the system were two of some importance for the future; the first, that in each school to which such apprentices were attached there should be a master or mistress of method responsible for their training, and the second, that special arrangements should be made at some centre, preferably a University or University College, for instruction in educational theory.[1]

The other method of providing preliminary training, much older and more prevalent, particularly in girls' schools, was by means of a student-teacher system, a term now used in a somewhat different connexion. Here the arrangement was that an ex-scholar should continue some of his or her studies and also teach part time in the school. This method was very much akin to the Pupil Teacher system in the Elementary School, and was regarded by many Head Teachers as far preferable to the Training Courses for Secondary Teachers which had developed by that time in Colleges and Universities. These, it was felt, tended to emphasize unduly the theoretical side of training.[2]

The facilities which the Bryce Commission found in existence for the professional training of Secondary Teachers were by no means extensive, though some of them had originated twenty years earlier. In 1847 the College of Preceptors[3] instituted examinations for Diplomas intended chiefly for teachers in Private Schools, and after establishing (in 1873) the first Professorship of the Science and Art of Education in this country,[4] arranged for regular courses of lectures and lessons to teachers. About the same time experiments in training were being made in other

[1] For a fuller account and discussion see *Bryce Commission Report*, vol. i, p. 204.

[2] Ibid., pp. 203–4, par. 121.

[3] Incorporated 1849.

[4] This professorship lapsed on the death of the holder, Joseph Payne, in 1876. The first University Chairs of Education were established at Edinburgh and St. Andrews in the same year with funds left by Dr. Andrew Bell for educational purposes.

quarters, and the whole movement received a much-needed impetus from the fact that the education of girls was now attracting attention, and a new supply of teachers had to be created. From 1872 onwards the Head Masters' Conference consistently advocated professional training for Secondary Teachers, and set on foot the movement which led ultimately to the formation of the Teachers' Training Syndicate of Cambridge University in 1879, in connexion with which R. H. Quick, James Ward, and J. G. Fitch delivered courses of lectures. The final step was due very largely to the zeal of Miss Buss, the first Head Mistress of the North London Collegiate School. To her, together with Miss Beale and Mrs. Grey, may be attributed also the establishment on a permanent basis of a system of professional training for women teachers. Miss Beale introduced a training department as an important feature of her school at Cheltenham, and in 1877–8 Mrs. Grey was instrumental in founding the Maria Grey Training College.[1] Progress was slow and by the date of the Bryce Commission there were only three Training Colleges and three Secondary Training Departments for women teachers, with a total annual output of something over a hundred.[2]

On the men's side development had been in connexion with Universities rather than in separate colleges. In 1883 London University instituted an examination for a Diploma in Education, and by 1895 schemes for the training of Secondary Teachers were in operation in two of the constituent Colleges of the Victoria University (Manchester and Liverpool), while the University Colleges of Birmingham and Nottingham were contemplating developments of a similar kind. In each of these centres a Day Training College for Elementary Teachers was already in existence, and at Liverpool part of the training was given to Elementary and Secondary Teachers in common.[3] Oxford, too, was at that time considering a scheme which matured in the following year (1896) as a Delegacy for the training of Secondary Teachers.[4] An independent attempt to establish a Training

[1] B. of E. Educational Pamphlets, No. 23, *The Training of Women Teachers for Secondary Schools*, p. 5.

[2] *Bryce Commission Report*, vol. i, p. 202, par. 120.

[3] Ibid., Evidence of Dr. A. W. Ward (Victoria University), vol. iv, pp. 245–6, and Miss A. J. Cooper (Birmingham), vol. ii, pp. 208–15. For Nottingham scheme see vol. v, pp. 82 et seq.

[4] *Educational Pamphlets*, No. 23, p. 23.

College for men at Finsbury, about ten years before (1883–6), proved unsuccessful owing to lack of funds and adequate support, and the only independent organization making similar provision at the date of the Bryce Commission was the College of Preceptors, which from 1895 to 1898 carried on a non-residential Training College for men, preference being given to students who had graduated at one of the English Universities.[1]

By this time the movement in favour of University Day Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers, initiated in 1890, had made considerable headway, there being now twelve such centres. This fact, and the attempts made in some cases to combine the training of Elementary and Secondary Teachers, led the Commissioners to consider the advisability of pushing the combination still further. That there were very real difficulties could not be denied, but these were, in the view of the Commissioners, the result of faults in the Elementary School system which ought to be remedied, and not due to any fundamental difference in the requirements and work of the teachers. A low level of general education before training, and large classes in the Elementary School, were regarded by them as removable evils, and they favoured unity of training as against a separation which would tend to 'stereotype the characteristic faults' to which each class of teacher is liable.[2] As to the nature of the training to be provided the Commissioners were agreed. It must in all cases provide for instruction both in theory and in practice. As to the most suitable body to provide such training they were equally agreed. 'The function of providing the professional instruction does not seem properly attributable to Local Authorities, because their sphere of action is not sufficiently wide. On the other hand it ought not to be handed over to the Central Office, because that might induce an undesirable uniformity. Freedom and variety would, in our opinion, be best secured if the Universities were to take up the task. . . .'[3]

On the advisability of establishing residential colleges in connexion with training schemes for Secondary Teachers, the

[1] October 1895 to July 1898. Vide Prefatory Notice in College of Preceptors' Calendar for year 1899.

[2] *Bryce Commission Report*, vol. i, p. 208, par. 124.

[3] Ibid., pp. 322–3, par. 160.

Commissioners expressed no decided view. They regarded this and other matters as in the experimental stage, and desired to see variety in experiment encouraged.

The movement in favour of the professional training of Secondary Teachers received a further impetus after the passing of the 1902 Act. With an increase in the number and an improvement in the efficiency of Secondary Schools, consequent upon the entry of Local Education Authorities into the field, a further supply of teachers was needed, and in 1906 the Board of Education intimated their intention of reserving the right to require that a certain proportion of new appointments should consist of persons who had gone through an approved course of training.[1] As a necessary consequence of this policy the Board in 1908 went on to make grants to certain institutions training Secondary Teachers. These grants were limited to £100 for each group of five recognized students, and, moreover, were conditional upon at least an equal amount being forthcoming from other sources.[2] The training had to be purely professional, and in 1911 a University degree was made a pre-requisite.[3] Prior to 1913 grants were confined to Training Colleges or University Training Departments, but the regulations of that year approved of an alternative type of training similar in certain respects to that initiated by Miss Beale at Cheltenham, and centring on the Secondary School rather than the University. The system of grants was also modified to allow of a capitation grant of £18 for each student completing the course.[4]

In the year ending 31st July 1914, twenty-one institutions were recognized under the Board's regulations for the training of Secondary Teachers: of these, fourteen were eligible to receive grants, nine being Departments of Universities or University Colleges, and five separate Training Colleges. The total amount allotted in grants for that year was £2,650, and the total number of students completing a course 205.[5] In addition to the recognition of these institutions the Board also recognized four schools—three as providing training in the teaching of a special subject, and the fourth (Rugby) as providing practical training

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1905–6, p. 59.
[2] Ibid., 1912–13, p. 174.
[3] Ibid., 1907–8, p. 79.
[4] Ibid., 1912–13, p. 174.
[5] Ibid., 1913–14, pp. 171–2.

on general lines in co-operation with the Cambridge University Secondary Training Department.

Numerically the results of the movement in favour of training Secondary Teachers were not very considerable, at least prior to 1914, but there can be little doubt that the freer lines on which it developed tended to emphasize by contrast the more stereotyped character of the training then provided for many of the teachers preparing for work in Elementary Schools. Day Training Colleges were established after 1895 in connexion with the newer University Colleges of Reading, Southampton, and Exeter and also in London;[1] and, when, in 1906, the Board's offer to pay seventy-five per cent. of the cost of new Training Colleges led to the establishment of County and Municipal Colleges, these were planned, equipped, and staffed on more liberal lines.[2] At first local and non-residential, the latter gradually came to draw students from wider areas, and, with the provision of hostels, there was evolved a type of college which endeavoured to combine the educational advantages of a large institution with the social amenities of a small one.

These changes in the conception of Training College life were not without effect on the older residential institutions. Buildings, equipment, and staff were slowly improved under the pressure of competition and of increasingly stringent regulations of the Board of Education. After 1890 day students might be admitted,[3] and from 1907 onwards denominational colleges were required to throw open at least fifty per cent. of the places available to all suitable students without the imposition of any religious tests.[4] By 1914 there were eighty-seven training institutions of various types for Elementary Teachers, with accommodation for 13,093 students.[5] Of these rather more than one-half were provided by voluntary organizations. Fuller details will be found in Appendix C, p. 449, where figures are given showing the progress made in the provision of facilities for the training of teachers during the period we have been surveying.

Here we must conclude our historical sketch. Much that

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, p. 29.
[2] An offer of 25 per cent. was made in 1904. See also ch. x, pp. 255–6.
[3] Code of 1890, Arts. 110–29 (*Circ. 287*, 27 May 1890).
[4] *B. of E. Report*, 1906–7, pp. 16–17, 57–9.
[5] Ibid., 1913–14, p. 158.

would be of great interest has perforce, from lack of space, been omitted; many matters only briefly dealt with will become clearer as we proceed. It remains only to remind ourselves of the main features of the development we have been describing.

Originating in an age of philanthropy when the education of the children of the masses was demanded not merely on religious, but also on economic, social, and human grounds, the system for providing the necessary number of teachers was laid down on very definite but very restricted lines from which there was little departure during the first half-century of its history. The prevailing ideas of this period were those embodied in the Pupil Teacher system and the Residential Training College—an early apprenticeship followed by a combined course of further education and training limited in scope by the supposed needs of teachers in Elementary Schools. From 1890 onwards the influence of the new Universities and the gradually increasing opportunities for secondary education strengthened the movement which had already begun in favour of a longer period of general education prior to professional training, a movement which was still further accelerated by the improvements in our educational system resulting from the Act of 1902, and the slow but steady advance in the direction of professional training for Secondary Teachers. To-day the earlier system exists side by side with subsequent modifications, and though the admirer of historical continuity will find much to satisfy him in this development, the lover of symmetry and unity will have little reason to admire its results. Kerschensteiner, writing of Germany shortly before the war, laments the inadequacy of the provision for teacher training in his own country in striking terms.

'Forty-five years,' he says, 'have passed. The tide of education has swept onwards meanwhile, and still the waves rise ever higher. There is no class in society which has not in the meantime deepened or widened its educational foundation. . . . The arrangements for teachers' training alone are like fossils washed up out of the past history of civilization into the alluvium of the present. . . . Yet among teachers, at any rate the best, the cry for true education becomes ever louder. I know of no profession which has so many members hungry for knowledge as that of

the teacher—but I know of none which, thanks to its wretched preparation, is exposed so entirely to the modern abuse of education as this. Only in the great cities where, thanks to the Universities, the stream of education flows in a deeper bed, do the best find what they strive for.' [1]

Strong words these to be spoken of a country not infrequently regarded as worthy of imitation in matters educational. There are signs that the stagnation which Kerschensteiner deplores, may, ere long, be a thing of the past, and it behoves us in this country that we rest not too long on our oars. The task for which our teachers must be prepared becomes ever more complex, the responsibility resting on those who provide for their education and training ever greater. It is a far cry from the drill-sergeant methods of Lancaster's monitors to the teaching in the average Elementary School of to-day ; far greater should be the difference between the training received, for growing up among us is an ever-strengthening conviction that on the teacher of our children the future depends. It is for him to prepare his pupils to play their part in a developing society, to fit them in short to help to create the future, and for such a task we cannot equip him too well.[2]

[1] Kerschensteiner, *The Schools and the Nation* (tr. Ogden, 1914), pp. 278–9.

[2] The historical account contained in this chapter is necessarily very condensed and deals mainly with the training of Elementary and Secondary Teachers. A slight sketch of early developments in connexion with Infant Teachers and Teachers of Special Subjects will be found in Ch. VII. The reader who wishes to pursue the history of Teacher Training will find in the following publications a useful introduction to the various aspects of the subject. Changes in the system of training Elementary Teachers in the nineteenth century are described in Birchenough, *History of Elementary Education*, ch. x. An historical survey with an account of life in Training Colleges fifty years ago is also contained in ch. i of the *Board of Education Report* for 1912–13, while *Circ. 573* (*B. of E.*) gives a good account of the history of the Pupil Teacher System. Salmon and Hindshaw, *Infant Schools*, includes an historical account of teacher training, while the development of facilities for the training of Women Teachers for Secondary Schools is outlined in the *B. of E. Pamphlet No. 23*. For other references see footnotes to this chapter.

II

BRIEF SURVEY OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM

Before we proceed to examine the various stages in the education and training of teachers, it will be well to indicate the main groups with which we have to deal. Adopting for the moment the prevailing distinction between Elementary and Secondary Schools, we find attached to the former several grades of teacher. The latest statistics available are given in Appendix C, p. 446, and show that in the year 1920–1 there were serving in Elementary Schools 116,069 Certificated Teachers. Of these approximately two-thirds had passed through a Training College or other similar institution, the remainder having obtained the Board of Education Certificate by examination while actively engaged in teaching. These together form the largest and most important group. Next in size and importance comes a group of 35,457 Uncertificated Teachers, men and women who have not passed through the final stage of examination and training completed by those in the first group. Following these we have a smaller class of young people in the early stages of their preparation, between seven and eight thousand in number, of whom rather less than half are known as Student Teachers and the remainder as Pupil Teachers. Finally we have a group composed exclusively of women and known as Supplementary Teachers. These in 1920–1 numbered 13,540, and for the present we must be content with the official description of them as 'suitable women over eighteen years of age'. In addition to these teachers, all of whom are nominally attached to particular schools, there are a number of others,[1] chiefly part-time and specialist teachers of domestic and manual subjects, physical exercises, music, and art, who are not attached for full-time service to any one school.

Corresponding particulars for Secondary Schools are by no means so complete, owing to the large numbers of these institutions which have as yet no definite connexion with the Board of Education. But if we examine the statistics for Secondary Schools in England and Wales which are in receipt of grants from the Board of Education we find a much simpler grouping

[1] 3,796 in 1919–20. *B. of E. Statistics*, 1919–20, p. 18.

of teachers. Of 18,727 teachers serving in 1,249 schools during the year ending March 31, 1922, 11,887 are classed as graduates and the remainder as non-graduates, and there are in addition a number of visiting teachers of whom no classification is attempted.[1] The majority of Secondary Teachers have not been through a course of professional training.[2]

Each of the groups enumerated above will come in for some measure of consideration at a later stage, but our way will be made easier if we pause to consider briefly the stages through which a teacher may pass before entering upon his [3] work in the schools. Accepting the convenient and customary division between preliminary education to the age of seventeen or eighteen and the later stages of preparation, and selecting the largest of the groups (the Trained Certificated Teachers in Elementary Schools) as our starting point, we may note the variations within these two periods.

First as to the period of preliminary education. Until 1907 the Pupil Teacher system, as revised in 1903, continued to be the chief avenue of approach to the profession of a teacher in an Elementary School, but since that year an alternative system then introduced by the Board of Education has been increasingly adopted. The intending teacher of to-day usually spends the years between eleven or twelve and sixteen in a Secondary School. Prior to this he may have been a scholar at either an Elementary School, a Private School, or in the preparatory department of the same Secondary School. Attendance at the Secondary School is facilitated by the granting of Bursaries or Scholarships by Local Education Authorities for periods of varying duration, towards the end of which the intending teacher is expected to pass an examination qualifying for admission to a Training College. If successful, he may pass direct into a college, but often spends the final year (seventeen to eighteen) as a Student Teacher attached to an Elementary School, and passes into college at eighteen years of age after obtaining some practical experience in teaching. The number of those who adopt the former course is steadily increasing. Failing ad-

[1] 3,466 in 1919–20. *B. of E. Statistics*, 1919–20, p. 79.

[2] For more detailed statistics see *B. of E. Report*, 1921–2, pp. 15, 19, 30, 37 and 96.

[3] The masculine gender is used throughout for the sake of convenience, but, apart from certain obvious exceptions, the reference is to both sexes.

mission to a College the ex-Student Teacher may take up service in the schools as an Uncertificated Teacher.

But not all who intend to become Elementary Teachers have been in attendance for so many years at a Secondary School. For a considerable number of entrants in each year an avenue is provided by the present form of the Pupil Teacher system, whereby at the age of sixteen a boy or girl may become a Pupil Teacher for two years, attending for part of the time an Elementary School for practical training, and for the remainder a Secondary School or other Centre to continue his studies. A still further modification is allowed in rural areas. Here boys and girls may become Pupil Teachers at fourteen years of age for a period of four years. For training in teaching they are attached to an Elementary School, but also receive instruction from the Head Teacher in some of the subjects studied for their qualifying examination. His teaching, however, is generally supplemented either by further instruction at a Centre, or by lessons from a peripatetic teacher. As in the case of the Student Teacher, success in one of the appointed qualifying examinations secures admission to a Training College or appointment in the schools as an Uncertificated Teacher.

Finally, a young person suitably qualified by examination and in other respects may pass direct into a Training College or University Training Department from a Secondary School or after private instruction, without in any way coming under any of these systems.

The preliminary stage accomplished, there are yet one or two alternatives open to the future teacher. The majority of the students who pass into a Training College (especially the women) take a Two-Year Course, and after negotiating the final examination successfully, emerge as Trained Certificated Teachers. A few spend a third year in the advanced study of a special subject, in England or abroad, while others return for a further year's study after an interval of a few years spent in teaching. Others, more ambitious and with higher academic qualifications, pass into a University Training Department, there to enter upon a Four-Year Course, of which three years are spent in studying for a degree in arts or science, and the fourth in preparing for a University Diploma or Certificate in Education.[1]

[1] For numbers see ch. iv, p. 72.

Two other possible variations remain to be noted. Intermediate between the Two- and Four-Year Courses referred to on the preceding page we find, what are, in fact, Three-Year Courses, though they are not now referred to as such in official regulations. A number of students who enter upon a Two-Year Course substitute preparation for a University examination for the syllabus in general subjects prescribed by the Board of Education. These, if they have made satisfactory progress during the first two years, may be permitted to devote a third year to the completion of their studies for a degree. Then, too, a considerable number of those who, after one of the courses of preliminary education, pass into the schools to work as Uncertificated Teachers, continue their studies, and at a later date sit for the examination for acting teachers held by the Board of Education since 1846, success in which raises the candidate to certificate rank. Lack of training, however, tends more and more to be regarded as a disadvantage, to be removed, if opportunity occurs, by spending a year at a training institution.[1]

Of Secondary Teachers there is less to be said. Educated in almost all cases in Secondary Schools to the age of eighteen, they pass either into the schools to teach in a subordinate capacity or to the Universities as degree students. A few women proceed from the Secondary School to a Kindergarten Training College, and of the University students a small proportion spend a further year in taking a post-graduate course in Education. The majority, however, obtain teaching posts immediately after taking a degree, and only a few of them return at a later date for a course of professional training.

The preparation of Teachers of Special Subjects, whether for Elementary or Secondary Schools, falls into the same broad divisions of preliminary education and professional training, and there is no need to examine the arrangements more closely at this stage.

The principal variations thus briefly described are set out in tabular form on the next page, and the reader may find the table useful also for purposes of reference in the course of the detailed consideration of each stage to which we must now proceed.

[1] It is exceptional, for example, for the Headship of a large Elementary School to be given to a non-college-trained teacher.

WAYS OF ENTERING THE TEACHING PROFESSION. PRELIMINARY EDUCATION

Approx. Age.	*First Alternative. (Bursar-Student Teacher)*	*Approx. Age.*	*Second Alternative. (Two-year P. T.)*	*Approx. Age.*	*Third Alternative. (Four-year (Rural) P. T.)*	*Approx. Age.*	*Fourth Alternative. (Increasing in favour)*
To age 11, 12, or 13	Elementary or Secondary School.	To 14	Elementary School.	To 14	Elementary School.	To 17 or 18	General education as an ordinary scholar in any type of school or by private tuition.
11, 12, 13, to 17	Bursar in Secondary School.	14 to 16	Secondary School or Preparatory Class in Pupil Teacher Centre.	14 to 18	Pupil Teacher. Part time spent at Centre or in receiving instruction from Head Teacher of Elementary School: part-time teaching in Elementary School.		
17 to 18	Student Teacher. Part time in Elementary School and part time in Secondary School.	16 to 18	Pupil Teacher. Part time in Elementary School and part time in Secondary School or Pupil Teacher Centre.				

During this period the Student sits for one of the approved qualifying examinations. If successful he may either

(*a*) serve as an Uncertificated Teacher in the schools, sitting later for the Certificate Examination of the Board of Education for Acting Teachers, *or*

(*b*) enter a Training Institution. In the latter case he follows either the first or second of the courses shown below.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

Approx. Age.	*Course followed by most Elementary Teachers.*	*Approx. Age.*	*Course followed by some Elementary and by Secondary Teachers.*	*Age.*	*Elementary or Secondary Teachers.*
18 to 20	Two-Year Course at a Training College. [Extended in some cases to three years].	18 to 22	Four-Year Course in a University Training Department or College associated with a University (3 years general study and 1 year professional training).	Varies	One-Year Course for Certificated Teachers or Graduates.

III

PRELIMINARY EDUCATION

Elementary Teachers. *Bursars.* The first avenue to the profession of an Elementary Teacher which we have noted on the opposite page is that known as the Bursar and Student Teacher system. Bursarships are scholarships awarded by Local Education Authorities to boys and girls who have declared their intention of becoming teachers, and are tenable only at Secondary Schools which have been recognized by the Board of Education as efficient. Complete exemption from fees must be granted, and, if needed, a maintenance allowance may also be made.[1] Before selecting Bursars, Local Education Authorities must satisfy themselves that the Head Teachers of the schools last attended consider them suitable in character and attainments for the teaching profession, that their state of health is satisfactory, and that a declaration has been signed by the candidate and by his parent or guardian of the intention of the candidate to become a teacher in an approved school.[2] Normally Bursarships are granted for periods varying with the age of the holders, who must attend a Secondary School full time, except for a period (not exceeding one month) during which they may be sent to a Public Elementary School for a test in actual teaching. Towards the close of the scholarship period Bursars must enter for one of the examinations qualifying for admission to a Training College, such examination being the approved First Examination for the Secondary School which they attend ; [3] at the end of the period of recognition many of the candidates pass into Elementary Schools to spend the ensuing year as Student Teachers. Others prefer to remain in the Secondary School until they enter a Training College : the number of these is steadily increasing.

When these arrangements for preliminary education and training were first introduced in 1907 (and indeed until a short time ago), an intending teacher was not recognized by the Board

[1] *Regulations for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 3 (*a*). See also ch. x, pp. 235–6.

[2] Ibid., par. 12.

[3] See also p. 47 *infra*.

of Education as a Bursar until he had reached the age of 16. Recognition might be for one or, less frequently, for two years, and the Board required that Bursars should already have been in attendance at a Secondary School for three years. The prolonged education at a Secondary School which this system demanded gave rise to a difficulty. Prior to its introduction the ranks of the profession had been largely recruited from children in the Elementary School by means of the Pupil Teacher system, and only a small proportion of these could be maintained by their parents at a Secondary School to the age of sixteen. The Board of Education therefore took the step of encouraging Local Education Authorities to offer special scholarships at an earlier age to boys and girls who declared their intention of becoming teachers. To enable them to comply with the regulation of the Board, which required candidates to have been in attendance at the Secondary School for three years prior to their sixteenth birthday, it was necessary to offer these scholarships at the age of twelve to thirteen, and under the influence of the staffs of Secondary Schools, who preferred to admit children from the Elementary Schools at an even earlier age, they came to be offered to candidates between the ages of eleven and thirteen. In the case of scholars already in attendance at the Secondary School the higher age limit was often waived.

The distinction between the earlier and later periods has now been dropped, but the system of scholarships for intending teachers remains. The number offered by different Authorities varies considerably, but in the majority of cases they are regarded as additional to the ordinary County Scholarships, and are awarded on the results of a separate examination. A few Authorities have recently abandoned the practice of ear-marking scholarships in this way, but an examination of a considerable number of schemes put forward under the Education Act, 1918, shows that in more than half the areas concerned the practice is to be continued. Several Authorities appear to be contemplating its introduction for the first time.

A full consideration of the period of Bursarship is hardly necessary, as during that time the intending teacher is an ordinary pupil at a Secondary School, preparing, like others, for an approved First Examination. But the question of

scholarships for intending teachers is one of considerable importance and may be discussed more fully. Let us first consider how the system works out in practice. Local Education Authorities offering these special scholarships proceed on either of two lines. Some offer a fixed number of scholarships for competition or state an upward limit to which they will go. Others prefer not to name a definite number, but state that they are prepared to grant scholarships to suitable candidates. In short, these scholarships are sometimes offered on a competitive, sometimes on a qualifying basis. The degree of selection in the first case depends, it is clear, on the proportion of scholarships to candidates, but in the second case it depends rather on the minimum level of attainment required by the Authority. Here there is room for considerable elasticity, and even admitting the wisdom of making allowance for children who may be late in developing, we may readily understand that the determining factor tends to become the urgency of the need for a supply of candidates for the profession. Moreover, these special scholarships do not as a rule attract the best products of the schools, and that this is so is confirmed by the recent experience of a large County Education Authority. At the 1921 scholarship examination this Authority introduced an oral test for the first time, and the fact was very clearly brought out that the standard of the candidates desiring to become teachers was far lower than that of scholarship candidates in general. The Authority therefore resolved to increase the number of open scholarships, and to rely rather on improved conditions of the profession to attract the necessary number of teachers.[1] There can be little doubt, indeed, that the standard adopted in awarding scholarships to intending teachers is often lower than that for other scholarships, though it is not every Authority that states the fact so explicitly as the London Education Committee. Among the general conditions for the award of Supplementary Scholarships in the London area appears the paragraph :

'There will be two standards of success in the examination,

[1] Report presented to the Staffordshire Education Committee by the Director of Education. This Authority has now (1923) converted all intending Teacher Scholarships for candidates from Elementary Schools into Open Scholarships.

a lower standard for free places and a higher standard for scholarships. Candidates who undertake to become teachers . . . may be awarded scholarships if they reach the free place standard.'[1]

Some interesting figures which throw light on this point are given in a Report on Bursaries prepared for the Lancashire County Association of Teachers in October 1921. Comparing the percentage of successful candidates in the examinations for Junior County Scholarships and special scholarships for intending teachers, it was found that whereas in the former case the percentage of awards to entrants was 25 in 1920 and 22 in 1921, in the latter case the corresponding figures were 70 and 58·5. The report adds, moreover, that 'experience has proved that children who have failed to win scholarships have found no difficulty in winning Bursarships', and if further confirmation of the failure of the system to attract the best type of candidate is needed, it may be found in the fact that the majority of pupils in Secondary Schools who intend to be teachers may be found in that nondescript group which gathers somewhere about the fifth form, of whom only a few are able to proceed to an approved Second School Examination.

The conditions attached to these 'intending teacher' scholarships vary slightly in the rigidity with which they are interpreted, but their general tenor is to the effect that the child will attend an approved Secondary School for a given period, at the end of which he will, if required, take steps to qualify as a teacher. Violation of any of the conditions of the agreement render the parent (between whom and the Local Education Authority the agreement is made) liable to refund the cost of tuition and maintenance incurred by the Authority, and the Authority reserve the right to terminate the scholarship at any time if not satisfied with the conduct and progress of the scholar.[2]

Such agreements, judged from a purely business standpoint, may be justifiable, and there may be, and is, under some Authorities, considerable leniency in enforcing them. For example, under one Education Authority the amount repayable may not in any

[1] *London County Council, Scholarships and Training of Teachers Handbook*, 1921, p. 14.

[2] See Appendix A, p. 395, for a copy of such an agreement.

event exceed £15, and the scheme of another Authority speaks of the liability to refund 'the amount already paid, or such smaller sum, if any, as the Committee may determine'. Nevertheless the fact remains that as the expenditure of public money increases it becomes more and more difficult for either party to withdraw. Once the child's feet are set on this path, the system, as it were, develops its own pressure. Only in a small proportion of cases are parents of scholarship-holders either able or willing to face the consequences of the withdrawal at an advanced stage of a child for whom they have undertaken obligations a few years previously.

The Education Authority, on their part, naturally require that satisfactory progress shall be made, the criterion being the Head Teacher's estimate of the pupil's ability to pass the required examination during the subsequent period of Bursarship. Where there is any doubt the child is usually given the benefit of it, and only in obviously unsuitable cases does any weeding out take place before the examination.

Two criticisms have been put forward of this system of 'intending teacher' scholarships. Some critics assert that it is undesirable for a child at so early an age to make a decision as to his future profession, much less should he be expected to bind himself to abide by the decision when, perchance, wider experience has aroused other desires for the future. And, indeed, when we remember that the choice is in reality made rather by the parent and the teacher than by the child, and contemplate the possible ineffectiveness, if not the danger, at a later stage, of one who has become a teacher almost in spite of himself, we shall agree that the criticism is sound and prefer methods of obtaining a supply of teachers which do not require an early decision of this kind.

The second criticism emanates from those who have been familiar with the older forms of the Pupil Teacher system and their products. Remembering the facility which the Pupil Teacher acquired in the art of class-management, they deprecate a long separation of the young teacher from the Elementary School, and the deferring of all practical work until the Student-Teacher year or the Training College course. There is, they say, under the Bursar system, no means of determining at an early stage whether the child possesses those characteristics which go

to make the good class-teacher, and, moreover, the prolonged stay at the Secondary School tends to alienate him in sympathy from the work of an Elementary School. It is true that the Board of Education allow an absence from the Secondary School for a period not exceeding one month, for a practical test in teaching,[1] but the opportunity thus afforded is little used, and by practical teachers is regarded as of no real value, being much too short.

How far an early acquaintance with school routine may be of value will be clearer after a consideration of the period of Student-Teachership and the present form of the Pupil Teacher system. It will be sufficient to remind ourselves here that at so early an age the intending teacher, being as yet little more than a child, is very impressionable and imitative. Whatever judgement is formed of him should be very tentative, and anything tending to impose limitations upon development should be carefully avoided.

The alleged alienation from the Elementary School may in some few cases be due to a development of ' social snobbishness ', but more frequently may be the result of a comparison of conditions in the two kinds of schools, or a realization of those inclinations towards another calling to which we have already referred. The first is a matter for those under whose influence the child comes in the Secondary School. The others represent a healthy reaction on the part of the child against the system, and to this extent are wholly good.

The question of examinations during this early period is interesting, but cannot be discussed at length for lack of space. Hitherto the selection of ' intending teachers ' between the ages of eleven and thirteen has usually been made on the result of a written examination in English and Arithmetic, with possibly History and Geography. This has been conducted as a rule by an official of the Local Education Authority, and a declaration has been required from the Head Teacher of the school attended by the child to the effect that he or she is ' not unsuitable ' to become a teacher—this, be it remembered, four, five, or six years hence ! Of late years, however, there has been a steady movement in favour of the introduction of oral

[1] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 3 (*b*).

tests, and increasing importance is being attached to them. Moreover, the work of examining candidates is now in a number of cases entrusted to an examining body composed of an equal number of Head Teachers of Elementary and Secondary Schools, associated with whom is an official of the Local Education Authority who has had teaching experience. Such a change is certainly in the right direction, and, if resulting in a raising of the standard of selection, will effect an improvement in what at its best must always remain an undesirable method of recruiting the teaching profession.

A list of the examinations qualifying for admission to a Training College, one of which must be taken during the Bursar period, is given in Appendix A (p. 396). The regulation which requires the examination taken by the Bursar to be the approved First Examination for the Secondary School which he attends excludes the Preliminary Examination for the Elementary Teachers' Certificate conducted by the Board of Education, so that a Bursar qualifies, as a general rule, by means of one of the examinations conducted by a University through the appropriate Delegacy or Board.[1] Formerly candidates who were not successful in obtaining a certificate from the examining body were regarded as eligible for admission to a Training College provided they reached an approved standard in certain specified subjects.[2] This arrangement has been discontinued, and since July 1922 a certificate obtained under the conditions laid down by the examining body has been required. The change, made for the purpose of simplifying the examination of pupils in Secondary Schools, will have the additional merit of eliminating an undesirable distinction which previously existed between Bursars and other candidates for the same examinations.

Student Teachers. The year of Bursarship over, and the necessary examination qualification secured, the majority of intending teachers are attached to Elementary Schools as Student Teachers for one year, occasionally for two. The young teacher is now not less than seventeen years of age and is required to devote the greater part of this period to practical

[1] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, ch. i; par. 3 (*d*).

[2] *B. of E. Circ. 1166*, 5 July 1920. The specified subjects were English Language and Literature, History, Geography, Arithmetic, and one optional subject.

work in the Elementary School, but for one or more meetings (i. e. half-days) per week he must continue his studies.[1] Normally the latter requirement is met by the student continuing to attend the Secondary School one day or two half-days per week, but, failing this, instruction may be given at a central class, or private study under supervision may be permitted. Subject to the approval of the Board, various modifications of the normal distribution of time between Elementary and Secondary School may be made by the Local Education Authority.

Probably no part of the preliminary training of the teacher has met with more criticism than this year of Student-Teachership, but before examining the criticisms it will be useful to determine what the Board of Education had in view in introducing the arrangement, and to try to obtain a clear idea of how the period is actually used.

The changes which marked the introduction of the system in 1907 were based on two principles, the one the desirability of educating future teachers in Secondary Schools for as long and as continuous a period as possible, and the other the advisability of postponing all practical experience in Elementary Schools until a natural break occurred in the general education of the teacher, such as, for example, the passing of an examination qualifying for entrance to a Training College. It was hoped thereby to ensure for the student leisure and freedom from strain, and expert guidance upon his first entry into the Elementary School. The Board emphasized the necessity for schemes of training and supervision being carefully planned and effectively carried out, and particularly desired that the Student Teacher's time and faculties should not be wholly absorbed by school duties, but that he should have both leisure and encouragement to pursue his general education on the lines most suitable for him.[2]

The ideas of the Board as to the characteristics of a suitable scheme were elaborated in a circular to Local Education Authorities.[3] The Code of 1907 had allowed the Student Teacher to be regarded as a member of the school staff and to count for forty-

[1] *B. of E. Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 14.
[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1908–9, Pt. I, pars. 54, 55.
[3] *B. of E. Circ. 597*, August 1908.

five children in average attendance;[1] but finding that this provision had been abused, the Board recommended that, except in specially organized schools, no attempt should be made to put Student Teachers in charge of classes or to entrust them with regular teaching in any subject until they had been long enough in the school to see how teachers of experience handled their work. The Circular went on to suggest that at a later date Student Teachers might 'be definitely attached to a particular class or to two or three classes in succession, and gradually undertake the teaching, first of one, then of more subjects under careful supervision. Towards the end of the year the importance of their duties might be somewhat increased, and they might perhaps be made continuously responsible to the Head Teacher, at any rate in certain subjects, for a small class or a section of a large class.'

On these lines and with these limitations Local Education Authorities have framed their schemes. An interesting review by the Board's Inspectors of two of these schemes, one for a City and one for a County, will be found in the Annual Reports for 1908–9[2] and 1909–10[3] respectively, and a typical scheme of recent date is given in full in Appendix A (pp. 392–3). The reports of the Board's Inspectors are instructive inasmuch as they indicate clearly the points on which the system was thought to be open to criticism in its earlier years. Doubt was expressed, for example, as to the capacity of the Student Teacher to observe the teaching methods of others and to draw intelligent inferences from them. The danger of servile imitation was noted, and the possibility of the Student Teacher deteriorating in general education was regarded as an open question.[4] Some twelve years have passed since these reports were written, and after such a lapse of time it will be of considerable interest to ascertain the views of those who are in a position to judge of the effectiveness of the system and its results.

But first as to actual conditions.[5] From accounts given by

[1] Reduced in 1909 to twenty. [2] *B. of E. Report*, 1908–9, Pt. II, p. 146.
[3] Ibid., 1909–10, Pt. II, pp. 89–94. [4] Ibid., 1908–9, pp. 56–7.
[5] In this and in succeeding chapters use will be made of evidence supplied by individuals who wish to remain anonymous. Thus, for example, the review of actual conditions contained in the following pages is based on accounts supplied by upwards of eighty young people who have recently completed

Student Teachers recently in training in several counties and towns it is clear that in theory the general arrangement of their work in the Elementary School follows the lines indicated above. But that there is considerable variety in practice, and that practice is not infrequently somewhat divorced from theory, the following typical extracts will show:

'I began with Standard I and spent three weeks with each class. For the first few days I observed in each class and then each day took not less than two lessons. I gave one criticism lesson every week. The Head Teacher supervised my notes of lessons and showed me my mistakes and how to correct them. Periodically the Supervisor of the Education Committee heard me teach and reported on my progress. . . . I gave lessons to a small backward section (in Standard IV) of sixteen children. . . . I had a small section in Needlework under the Head Teacher's notice. I took the whole class of about fifty for Geography and sometimes History, and also one Singing lesson a week.'

'I myself got comparatively little practice owing to the teachers being specialists.'

'I did not teach any higher than the Fourth Standard. . . . My faults and good points were told me clearly and so I began to realize what a little I knew about teaching and what a lot I had to learn.'

'I spent much of my time in observation. I used to do other things whilst I was observing, sometimes. I used to sort out Medical Records. I helped to hang pictures at the beginning of the term and framed several pictures during the year. I learned to take the children's bank money . . . and take it to the Bank in the afternoons. . . .'

'I was put with the teacher of Standard IA and told to observe her lessons. I had an Observation Book and took down as much of the lesson as I thought would be useful. As I had never been shown what to do, I simply took down the matter of the lesson and ignored the method altogether, hence the lessons have not been of the slightest use to me. . . . After Christmas I was put with the teacher of Standard II B. Here again I simply observed. I had not had any criticism lessons at all, but I began now to have one once a fortnight. . . . When writing my notes of lessons I had not the slightest idea of arrangement or development, and simply wrote a long rigmarole on the matter, with no mention of method at all. . . .'

periods as Student Teachers under at least a dozen different Local Education Authorities, supplemented by details obtained from Head Teachers of Secondary Schools and from other sources.

'Only when a teacher was absent did I have a class to myself, and then this was under the supervision of the Head Teacher who constantly visited the room.'

'Throughout the year I wrote notes of a story lesson every week—these were never used.'

'For the first five months I went round the school, remaining in each room for a week, helping the class teacher. During this time I gave one criticism lesson. . . .'

'I gave seven criticism lessons in the whole year. The Head Master and class teacher criticized the lesson each time, and I gained more benefit from these criticisms than I did during the whole of the other part of the year.'

'I hadn't the vaguest idea what to do with the children, but was told to take nothing but reading, writing, and arithmetic, and keep them quiet. I tremble and shiver when I think of the things I did. With the exception of two months I received no training and just went aimlessly about my work.'

'The Head Mistress employed my time equally between observing and criticizing the teachers' lessons, and actual teaching.'

'I gained very little experience in teaching but spent the greater part of my time in doing clerical work, and many things which a child in an upper class could have done quite as well. I observed methods of teaching which it would have profited me more not to have seen. . . .'

'No one likes criticism lessons, yet I cannot help thinking that if I had been criticized or helped with the lessons, the teaching would have been more useful. Instead of this I was left alone, and I am afraid I did very much as I pleased.'

When every allowance has been made for post-war irregularities of school staffing it is clear that in far too many cases the careful planning and effective carrying out of schemes for the training of Student Teachers is not in evidence. Head Teachers of Elementary Schools rarely have either the time or the energy to carry out so complete a scheme of training as the following, thus described by the Head Master himself:

'I usually have three to five students assigned to this school of 300 children. Each is attached to a Certificated Class Teacher for a period of about three weeks. . . . They are able to spend five or six weeks with each class in the school. . . . Each day the student is given by his Class Teacher a plan of work for the next day. This shows what part he is taking in every lesson—whether observing, assisting, taking the lesson for criticism purposes, participating in the class (as in some of the organized games and

physical exercises) or criticizing a fellow student. This plan of work is submitted to and initialled by the Head Teacher.

'Each morning, before 9 o'clock, the Head Teacher meets the students and discusses with them the notes of lessons prepared by individuals. . . . At the end of the day the Head Teacher again meets the students and with them discusses the criticisms made by the Class Teachers and by students. . . .

'Student Teachers attend our little staff Conferences.

'Later care is taken that the student shall have sufficient practice in class management without the presence of the Class Teacher.'

When we turn to the experience of these young people at the Secondary Schools which they attend we find rather less variation. In the majority of cases the subjects taken seem to be three or four of the following: English, Music, Drawing, Needlework, Gymnastics, and Games, chosen partly because they will be needed in the Elementary School, but also because the part-time pupil is a less disturbing element in most of them, particularly the last four, than in other subjects. Less frequently the time-table includes such additional subjects as History and Geography, French, Botany, and Nature Study.

Again it is interesting to quote from the Student Teachers' own accounts:

'We got disjointed lessons in History, Literature, and French.'

'I worked with the "Arts" Section of the Sixth Form; the subjects I took with them were English, Latin, French, and History. . . . In addition I attended a Geography lesson and an Arithmetic lesson which was specially arranged for the Student Teachers.'

'I was the only Student Teacher that year, and that, perhaps, made me feel more of an intruder. But it seemed to me that there was just no time for the staff to trouble about me. . . .'

'There were fifteen Student Teachers altogether, and for three lessons out of the four we had a special class. The four subjects taken were History, Botany, English, and French.'

'The Student Teachers attended the Secondary School for the whole of the first term, thus leaving the school finally with regard to education at Christmas. . . . We worked with the students who were hoping to go to a University and so were studying for the Higher Certificate Examination.'

'We spent one day a week at the Grammar School, where we were not compelled to go to any lessons, but left free to do as we liked.'

'The two half-days spent at the Secondary School were sheer

waste of time. The fact was we belonged to nobody and were nobody's concern. . . .'

'It seemed to me that the lessons were given in a rather haphazard sort of way. The subjects taken were Nature Study, Hygiene, English, Drawing, and Music. . . .'

'We attended the Secondary School every Wednesday. This was a very unsatisfactory arrangement. The week was broken up unnaturally and I did not take my Secondary School work seriously.'

'All the work taken in the classes was influenced by what would be useful to us on the other four days of the week. . . . It is good to have the methods shown at the Secondary School applied during the week.'

'Two half-days each week were spent at the Secondary School, but we were given no lessons. We had private study and nothing definite to do.'

'I had twenty miles to travel to get there (to the Secondary School). . . . I used to arrive at school about 10 o'clock . . . at 3 o'clock I had to leave school. . . . The total time which I spent in the Secondary School was three and a half hours a week.'

'There were only three Student Teachers and so we had to work with another form. This made the work a little uninteresting, as we missed a good deal during the week and just dropped in for Tuesday's lesson.'

There is thus good reason to believe that unless the Secondary School is well staffed and the Student Teachers sufficiently numerous to justify special arrangements being made for their instruction, the time which they spend there is largely wasted. But these conditions are by no means common, and it is still rarer to find a Head Master or Mistress of a Secondary School who thoroughly believes in the system and plans the work so that the Student Teachers shall derive the maximum benefit from it. One such Head Teacher, for example, arranges a special course for the twenty or thirty Student Teachers who in this case attend the school full time for one term. The work is directed by the more experienced members of the staff, with a view to the teaching aspect of each subject rather than the acquisition of further knowledge. Another Head Teacher arranges for the Student Teachers to attend the Secondary School two days each week and provides a special course for them, treating them as a separate form. To make up for this separation from the other pupils in their studies, she takes great pains to provide

opportunities for the Student Teachers to share as fully as possible in the more general activities of the school.

An arrangement of a different kind which has prevailed in West Wiltshire from the first is worthy of special notice. Here the Student Teachers attend a Central Class at Salisbury instead of returning to the various Secondary Schools for one day a week. The class, averaging about thirty, is conducted by a member of the staff of Salisbury Diocesan Training College, who aids and encourages the students to break new ground and to prepare themselves for their work in Training College. So far as possible students have kept in touch with their old schools. In many cases a girl or boy has gone back to the school for some bit of special coaching, and almost all of them still have access to the School Library and Gymnasium. Instances such as these, where special attention is paid to the needs of the Student Teacher, only serve to emphasize by contrast the ineffectiveness of the arrangements made for these young people in most Secondary Schools.

Having now a clearer idea of the way in which the Student Teacher year is passed, we may consider the views of the various groups of persons concerned. Looking back upon their work during the year in the light of after experience, ex-Student Teachers make two criticisms which find expression in the following further quotations. On the practical side one remarks, ' The advantages gained from the practice in teaching were lessened by the fact that when we came to College we were taught different methods from those which we had learnt in the Elementary School '. Another says, ' I think it was a great waste of time to have such constant practice in wrong methods which I was allowed, nay, encouraged, to use '. These are but two of many similar criticisms, the gist of which is well expressed by a Student Teacher who observes that ' the Elementary School needs to be up-to-date if the Student Teacher is to derive any benefit '.

On the academic side the chorus of lament is even greater :

' The work done . . . was not adequate to keep up my studies . . . my academic work in History and English was far too scrappy to confirm what I had previously learnt. I found this out to my sorrow when I picked up the threads again in College.'

'Although the work was very interesting I had been through it all before . . . my advanced knowledge began to fade away in spite of valiant efforts to continue it during spare time.'

'On coming to College one finds it very difficult to study again.'

'Every subject suffers by the interruption . . . at this time when one really and thoroughly understands the value of a good education and (has) a desire to go further, and better the knowledge gained during the years in school.'

In their recent Report the Departmental Committee on the Teaching of English called attention to and endorsed the views of witnesses who strongly represented to them that 'whatever advantage students may derive from this early technical experience, it breaks the course of their mental development and tends to dissipate the result of their previous education'.[1]

This is the view also of the majority of Principals and Lecturers in Training Colleges and University Training Departments. While emphasizing the seriousness of a break in the candidates' general education at the age of seventeen, they call attention also to the increasing importance which is now being attached to the last two years of life in the Secondary School, as evidenced by the development of Advanced Courses. Moreover, they point out, modern methods of teaching and discipline demand more knowledge and greater maturity of character than can be expected from the average boy or girl at seventeen or eighteen years of age, and therefore, if any practical work in the schools is to be introduced before the teacher enters on a course of professional training, it should be utilized merely for the purpose of testing general aptitude for the work of teaching. For this a shorter period at the end of the Secondary School course (say three to six months) would suffice.

These, too, are substantially the views of the organized body of Elementary Teachers.[2] It is not surprising, however, to find that many who have themselves passed through a period of apprenticeship as Pupil Teachers regard the practical experience gained during the year of Student Teachership as a necessary and valuable preparation for a training course. Head Teachers

[1] *Report of the Departmental Committee on the Teaching of English in England*, 1921, p. 173.

[2] See also ch. xiv, pp. 366–8.

of Secondary Schools naturally look at the matter purely from the standpoint of the pupil's general education, and cannot therefore regard the year as anything but regrettable. Both they and their colleagues in the Elementary School feel the danger for the Student Teacher of divided loyalty.

Nor are local administrators satisfied with the system. Too little practical training before entering College, no sufficient test of the aptitude of candidates for the teaching profession until much time and money have been spent on them, and in the end a lack of that knowledge of affairs and breadth of outlook which a teacher should possess—these are the criticisms which they have to make. Some place the greater emphasis upon the need for practical experience in the early stages, others urge the importance of a wider outlook. The former incline to an extension of the Pupil Teacher system, the latter to the provision of a complete secondary education; both groups alike agree that effective means should be found for determining the suitability or otherwise of candidates for the profession.

Underlying the criticisms which have been levelled at the Student Teacher system, the chief of which have been indicated, it is not difficult to discern the real cause for complaint. It is simply that two things are attempted and neither accomplished. There is no agreement as to the real purpose of the year, and the unfortunate student falls between two stools, neither receiving sufficient or satisfactory training in teaching nor continuing his general education with any degree of success.

It is difficult therefore to justify a continuance of the system. Conditions in both Elementary and Secondary Schools have changed considerably within recent years. Early familiarity with school routine has not the same value as in the days of more mechanical teaching, and the last few years in the Secondary School have become of increasing importance. For the student the main desideratum is continuity, and if there is to be a break for the purpose of bringing the intending teacher into contact with an Elementary School it should be still further deferred and more effectively utilized.

Pupil Teachers. The alternatives to the Bursar and Student Teacher system are the revised forms of Pupil Teachership, of which the Board of Education regulations give the essential

features. In these the Board state that they are prepared, if sufficient reason is shown, to approve supplementary arrangements which provide for the preliminary education and training of candidates for the teaching profession in one or other of the following ways :

1. By full-time education in Secondary Schools, or otherwise, up to the age of sixteen years at least, followed by two years of part-time education combined with training as a Pupil Teacher.

2. In rural areas only, by full-time education up to the age of fourteen years at least, followed by four years of part-time education combined with training as a Pupil Teacher.[1]

Pupil Teachers under (1) may be appointed at a commencing age of sixteen to eighteen, but if over seventeen should be appointed for one year. Similarly under (2) appointment may be at a later age for a correspondingly shorter period. The first form of Pupil Teachership is approved when there is in any area a sufficient number of suitable candidates for the teaching profession for whose preliminary education adequate provision cannot be made as ordinary pupils in Secondary Schools ; the second alternative is for candidates who are not within reasonable reach of a Secondary School. Each type of Pupil Teacher calls for special consideration.

The essential characteristic of Pupil Teachership in its earlier forms was the simultaneous carrying on of two types of work—teaching in the Elementary Schools and study for a qualifying examination, either in a Centre or under adequate supervision. Under the system as it exists to-day this need not necessarily be the case. The amount of each is determined by the regulation of the Board which provides that the Pupil Teacher shall attend the Public Elementary School for employment or training in the art of teaching during not more than half nor less than a quarter of the meetings of the school during the period for which he is appointed. In addition he must have two half-days or one whole day each week free from employment or instruction, while the remainder of the time is to be devoted to continuing his general education.

Within these limits Local Education Authorities are allowed

[1] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 2 (*b*).

every possible latitude in arranging the work of the young teachers. Thus in a number of areas the Pupil Teacher, after appointment at the age of sixteen, merely continues at the Secondary School for a further period of one year or more, and during that time takes the required qualifying examination. After this he spends the remainder of the two years of his engagement in the Elementary School, with or without attendance for one or two half-days a week at the Secondary School or other Centre for the purpose of continuing his studies. Under this arrangement there is little to distinguish the Pupil Teacher from a Student Teacher, except that often in his case there is no specific attempt to continue his general education during the latter part of the engagement, and his connexion with the Secondary School ceases entirely when he passes into the Elementary School for training in teaching. Moreover, the period during which the Pupil Teacher is engaged in practical work in the Elementary School appears to be spent in much the same way as the year of Student Teachership.

The advantages and disadvantages of the Student Teacher system have been so fully discussed that it is hardly necessary to enter into a detailed consideration of the arrangements for Pupil Teachers which we have just outlined. Evidence might be adduced to show that there is the same interruption of studies, the same haphazard training in teaching, in short the same balance of disadvantages in the one case as in the other. It is interesting to note, however, that where the period during which the Pupil Teacher remains at the Secondary School is extended (as occasionally happens) to one year and one term, the break in his general education is lessened, and we get an approximation at least to an arrangement frequently suggested, whereby a short period of teaching is interposed between preliminary education and professional training. Unfortunately the preliminary education is not carried to a sufficiently high standard, and, as the period of teaching is not at present regarded as a test by any of the parties concerned, the time is rarely used to the best advantage.

There are other Pupil Teachers who, before appointment, have been working as monitors in Public Elementary Schools, or have been engaged in some other occupation. These have

in some areas been brought into a Secondary School for two years or even for one, but this arrangement has met with little success, and is almost past history. The tendency in the last few years has been to revive the Pupil Teacher Centre in a modified form. In addition to the earlier type of separate institution and Centres organized as integral parts of Secondary Schools, others have recently been established in connexion with Central (Elementary) Schools for older children. At some of these, and at most of the separate Centres, preparatory classes are provided for those who intend to become Pupil Teachers at the age of sixteen.

There is a sharp cleavage of opinion, particularly among educational administrators, as to the superiority of the separate Centre over the Secondary School as a place for the further education of the intending teacher. It is urged, and conceivably in some areas justly urged, that the education received is better for its particular purpose, and even better, subject for subject, than that received in the Secondary School. There is equal reason for regarding this as evidence of too low a standard of secondary education in the area, and in any case the argument overlooks the supreme importance of a wider outlook and companionship for the future teacher. The Centre system, too, is a part-time system, pupils attending for two and a half days a week and spending the remainder of the time in the Elementary School. As such the arrangement is open to the same criticisms to-day as in 1898. It is now, as then, a hindrance to educational development by an added and extraneous claim upon time and energy; it involves divided allegiance and divided responsibility.

Arrangements for the training of the second group of Pupil Teachers, those in rural areas, represent in reality a partial reversion to the earliest form of Pupil Teachership. The steady falling-off in the supply of intending teachers (in the years between 1906 and 1913) called attention to the decline in the number of entrants from Elementary Schools in country districts.[1] This was attributed by many critics to the Board's policy of requiring association with a Secondary School to the age of sixteen, thus raising an obstacle which was only partially

[1] *B. of E. Reports*, 1912–13, p. 152, and 1913–14, p. 134.

removed by the institution of 'intending teacher' scholarships. It was pointed out that in many cases no Secondary School was accessible, and to meet such cases the regulations were modified in 1912 so as to allow Local Education Authorities to appoint Pupil Teachers at fourteen years of age and to make 'such arrangements for their instruction as may appear to be the best possible under the circumstances'. Such arrangements must provide

'(i) For instruction to be given to each Pupil Teacher by the Head Teacher of the School in which he is being trained.

'(ii) For instruction supplementary to the above. Such supplementary instruction being given in one or other of the following ways:

'(*a*) By the attendance of Pupil Teachers at Central Classes meeting on one or more mornings or afternoons weekly.

'(*b*) By specially qualified teachers forming part of the staff of the school in which the Pupil Teacher is being trained.

'(*c*) By visiting teachers.

'(*d*) By the residence of Pupil Teachers at suitable places of instruction for such periods as may be possible.'[1]

In the case of Head Teachers of exceptional ability the Board may dispense with supplementary instruction, and it is in these cases that we have the conditions of the earlier system largely, though not entirely, restored.

The general education of the Rural Pupil Teacher appointed at the age of fourteen goes on full time for a year, as during that year no employment or training in teaching is required by the Board. In the second year he usually spends one-quarter of his time in learning the rudiments of his future profession in the Elementary School. This may be increased to a proportion not exceeding one-half in subsequent years.[2] In some instances arrangements are made for the young teacher to teach full time after completing the necessary examination qualification for entrance to a Training College.

The various methods of providing supplementary instruction enumerated above may be found in different County areas. Gloucestershire, for example, collects the majority of its Pupil Teachers to two Central Classes, and arranges for peripatetic instructors to visit some of those who cannot conveniently

[1] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 11.
[2] Ibid., par. 13 (a).

attend either centre. The remainder are taught wholly by the Head Teachers of the Elementary Schools to which they are attached. Warwickshire, in addition to arranging Central Classes, has strengthened the staff and improved the equipment of two Elementary Schools, at Wellesbourne and Tysoe, in order to provide for the instruction of Pupil Teachers, at the same time supplying more advanced instruction for older children in the surrounding villages.

The North Riding of Yorkshire provides Central Classes for supplementary instruction, and at one time provided also the additional advantage of hostel accommodation for Pupil Teachers coming from a distance. In this way it was possible for the Central Classes to be held on two successive days (Friday and Saturday). Finally, a number of Counties, e. g. Berkshire, Norfolk, and Oxfordshire, provide for the supplementary instruction of a certain number of Rural Pupil Teachers by correspondence.[1]

The qualifying examination for which these young people are usually prepared is the Preliminary Examination for the Elementary Teacher's Certificate, recently modified so as to render it more suitable for Pupil Teachers in rural areas.[2] This is occasionally taken at the end of the third year, and the more advanced pupils at some Centres then sit for one of the University Local Examinations, success in which, it may be noted in passing, gives them a better chance of admission to a Training College.

Under the arrangements usually made for the general education of the Rural Pupil Teacher, the responsibility is divided, as we have seen, between the Head Teacher of the Elementary School to which the boy or girl is attached and the teacher or teachers in charge of the supplementary instruction. To facilitate organization at the Central Class this usually means that the Head Teacher of the Elementary School is responsible for the subjects more closely connected with the professional work of the intending teacher—Arithmetic, Reading, Music, Drawing, and Needlework. The remaining subjects, English Language and Literature, History, Geography, with any optional subjects

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1916–17, pp. 53–60.
[2] Ibid., 1919–20, pp. 59–60.

which may be selected—Mathematics, Elementary Science, or French—remain to be taken by the teachers of the Central Class. An attempt is made on the part of each to keep in touch with the other, but difficulties of distance and pressure of examination work prevent the co-operation becoming very effective in the majority of cases, and give rise to a conflict of interests which may result in over-pressure for the conscientious, or prove a temptation to the indolent to profit by playing off rival claimants for his time the one against the other. The need for co-operation will become more pressing now that the Preliminary Examination for the Certificate has to be passed as a whole (1922) and not, as formerly, in two separate parts on two different dates. In their report for 1919–20 the Board note the need for greater co-ordination in the arrangements for the instruction of Rural Pupil Teachers, and suggest an extension of the plan adopted in several counties of appointing a special supervisor for this purpose.

The question of distance is of some importance. Where the supplementary instruction is given at a Central Class or a centrally situated Elementary School a large proportion of the children have some distance to travel to and fro by rail or road. Only the more robust are able to combine study, teaching, and journeying to and fro without strain, and thus a number of young people, physically sound and in other respects as well suited for teaching as their more sturdy fellows, tend in the nature of the case to be excluded. The majority of Rural Pupil Teachers, it should be noted, are girls. So, too, where a peripatetic instructress is employed distance is an equally important factor, for not merely her physical energy but a great deal of her time is used up in traversing the long distances between school and school, with the result that the expenditure of time and energy is often out of proportion to the amount of attention which she can give to each pupil.

The choice of Elementary School is also important, and according to the regulations a Pupil Teacher may not be attached to a School which has not been approved by an Inspector of the Board of Education.[1] In practice the selection has to be made within the narrow limits prescribed by the necessity of

[1] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 15 (*e*).

finding a school near to the child's home; more particularly is this the case where the Centre attended for further instruction is also some distance away. Thus, while young teachers will not be attached to the worst schools, it by no means follows that they will be appointed to those which are exceptionally efficient. Then, too, the conditions under which private study has to be carried on are often far from satisfactory. With the exception of the small number of schools which have been provided with additional accommodation for older children, few village schools have a suitable room for the purpose, and often there are difficulties of a similar kind in the house.

Inquiry reveals considerable difference of opinion as to the standard of attainment of the Rural Pupil Teacher at the end of his course. One Director of Education points out that in practice Training Colleges tend to pass by candidates who have not obtained distinction in at least one subject in the Preliminary Examination for the Certificate, adding 'This is a standard to which very few of our Rural Pupil Teachers, who have to spend a great deal of their time in school work, can attain'. A comparison of the examination results of Rural Pupil Teachers and Bursars in Warwickshire over a period of three years shows that the former obtained a higher percentage of successes than the latter, but a subsequent inquiry by the Director of Education as to the more permanent results of the different methods of preliminary education and training does not bear out this apparent superiority of the Rural Pupil Teacher,[1] nor do figures for recent Preliminary Certificate Examinations in which both types of student were candidates.[2]

In this as in every part of our educational system there are doubtless wide variations in the effectiveness of the teaching as well as in the initial ability of the pupils, and it would be idle to ignore the excellent work which is often accomplished under highly unfavourable conditions. Probably Rural Pupil Teachership is seen at its best at a Centre like Wellesbourne where the

[1] This inquiry while not revealing any superiority in academic knowledge and showing the Rural Pupil Teacher to be markedly inferior in teaching capacity, yet places him in the front rank for moral influence and disciplinary power.

[2] Approximate percentage of failures 1919–20, Bursars 34, Rural Pupil Teachers 22. (*B. of E. Report*, p. 59; cf. *Reports*, 1920–1, p. 50, and 1921–2, p. 57.)

young people are in charge of a competent staff and have reasonable facilities in the way of equipment. Had the Central Schools contemplated by County Authorities under the Education Act of 1918 been established they would no doubt have been used as Pupil Teacher Centres, and some of the difficulties now to be faced by the Rural Pupil Teacher would have been removed. But in so far as the institution of a system of Central Schools proved to be the means of providing facilities for secondary as distinct from primary education, the main reason which is alleged for the existence of the system would have disappeared. Only by proving that which experience disproves, namely that a long apprenticeship under a part-time system is the best preparation for the intending teacher, would it be possible to justify its continuance. As the system stands at present both administrators and teachers admit that it has many limitations. Paucity of ideas in the pupils, due to their isolation, limitations of time, of curriculum, often of space and of equipment, the physical strain on the instructress (for a woman is almost always appointed), and on her pupils (mainly girls), are some of the disadvantages which make it an unsatisfactory preparation for the intending teacher.

We are well aware that some of these difficulties are not peculiar to the Rural Pupil Teacher and may be experienced by pupils attending Secondary Schools. But the Secondary School pupil at least has advantages denied to his less fortunate fellow, for he comes into contact with children from different homes and preparing for other walks in life, and in the best Secondary Schools may share in a corporate life somewhat different from and more suited to his needs than any which he has hitherto experienced. Moreover he is not a part-timer.

Two further arguments are often urged in justification of the system : the first that it has proved a means of increasing the supply of teachers, and the second that it is doing this cheaply. To the latter of these arguments we shall return in another chapter, and the former is part of the larger problem of the supply of teachers which will be more fully discussed at a later stage. Here we may urge that to judge of the success of any system of recruiting teachers merely by the numbers brought into the profession is a somewhat dangerous course, and no fair

estimate can be formed unless we take into consideration also the quality of the candidates whom it attracts and their after careers. Some measure of the former is provided by the examination results to which we have already referred, but the available evidence is insufficient to justify a general conclusion on the latter point.[1]

Comparison with Scotland. It will be useful at this stage to turn aside for a moment from our consideration of the arrangements for the preliminary education of Elementary Teachers in this country and look over the border. Developments in Scotland have corresponded in some measure with changes which have taken place in the sister country, but certain modifications peculiar to the former make a comparison of the two systems both interesting and instructive. Following the example of England, Scotland adopted the Pupil Teacher System in the first half of the nineteenth century,[2] and with the spread of secondary education replaced it in 1905–6 by a modified system which still prevails.[3] Under this system a child who has obtained what is known as the Intermediate Certificate, signifying the successful completion of three years' post-primary study,[4] may, on the recommendation of the Head Teacher of the school he has been attending, be nominated by the Local Education Authority as a Junior Student. Before recommending any pupil the Head Master may, if necessary, employ him in teaching under supervision in the junior classes of the school. If his nomination is approved and he produces the necessary medical certificate, the intending teacher spends the next three years in a Junior Student Centre, which is a Secondary School approved by the

[1] Figures for one County Area indicate that approximately one-third of the Rural Pupil Teachers enter Training Colleges, one-third become Uncertificated Teachers. For two-year Pupil Teachers (England and Wales) the most recent returns give 50·5 per cent. as entering College, 28·4 per cent. serving as Uncertificated Teachers. For Bursars the corresponding percentages were 64·1 and 17·6. The remainder in each case may be regarded as wastage. (*B. of E. Statistics*, 1919–20, Tables 142 and 147.)

[2] Kerr, *Scottish Education* (1913), p. 212.

[3] Ibid., p. 213, and Appendix II, p. 396. See also Minutes of 10 February 1920 (Cmd. 553) and *Regulations* (*Scotland*) (Cmd. 754) *for the Preliminary Education, Training and Certification of Teachers*, 1922.

[4] In Intermediate Schools from age eleven or twelve to fourteen or fifteen.

Education Department for the purpose.[1] Here he devotes the greater part of his time to pursuing a curriculum designed to equip him with a knowledge of the subjects needed in the Elementary School, but spends a small proportion of the time in each year in preliminary professional training under a Master of Method, usually the Head Master of the Secondary School, but often, where the number of Junior Students is large, specially appointed for the purpose. For ordinary school subjects Junior Students receive instruction with other pupils, but for a number of additional subjects required by them as intending teachers [2] they normally form a separate group. Practical training in teaching takes place either in the Primary Department of the same school, or in some other Primary School. In the latter case the Head Master of the Primary School is often the Master of Method.

At the end of the Junior Student period intending teachers must be presented for the Higher Grade Leaving Certificate in such subjects as may be prescribed. If successful in attaining a certain standard in these, as well as in examinations in the additional subjects of their course, and if obtaining also a satisfactory report on their practical work, they are granted the Junior Student Certificate which entitles them to pass on to a two-year training course at one of the four Provincial Training Centres or a Training College.[3]

Another alternative, however, is open to the intending teacher. Instead of becoming a Junior Student at fifteen (the usual age) he may prefer to remain as an ordinary pupil in a Secondary School, and sit for the full Leaving Certificate, the examination for which, though on a smaller number of subjects, is of a higher standard than is required for the Junior Student Certificate. If successful, the student who pursues this course is able to pass on to a University, and defer his professional training until he has taken a degree. Should he also have elected to combine with his studies for the full Leaving Certificate the amount of practical work

[1] All schools recognized as Junior Student Centres must provide a full course for the Leaving Certificate, which in Scotland marks the completion of secondary education.

[2] Natural Science, Physical Exercises, Music, Drawing, Needlework, and Domestic Science for girls ; Woodwork or Gardening for boys.

[3] *Scotland, Regns. for the Preliminary Education, &c., of Teachers*, 1922, Arts. 10–13.

required from the Junior Student, he will be excused some professional training at a later stage.[1] It is possible by careful selection of subjects to sit for both certificates, and if unsuccessful on the higher level, to attain the lower standard of the Junior Student Certificate, a possibility which at once marks the latter as an inferior qualification and a 'soft option'.

When we compare this system with the provision made for preliminary education in England we find several interesting parallels. At the outset we may note that the Scottish system is based on the principle of catching the intending teacher at an early age and educating him at a Secondary School. Owing, however, to the almost universal provision of facilities for intermediate (or post-primary) education prior to the Junior Student period it is unnecessary to provide the intending teacher scholarships so prevalent in this country. In the Secondary School the Junior Student, like the English Bursar, is freed from the necessity of paying fees throughout his course, even in those areas where secondary education is not free. If necessary, he receives also a maintenance grant from the Local Education Authority.

Again, under both systems the Head Teacher of the school attended by the candidate is consulted as to his suitability for the profession, and the Scottish regulations provide for a preliminary test in teaching comparable to the four weeks' trial referred to as permissible during the Bursar period in England.[2] The views of Scottish teachers as to this preliminary recommendation and test are interesting. There is general agreement that in practice they are of little value, largely owing to the action of the Local Education Authority, which, in its anxiety to obtain recruits for the profession, accepts even candidates who are only hesitatingly recommended, and many of whom it would no doubt have been wiser policy to reject. Such action tends to a perfunctory application of the test by Head Teachers, some of whom consider that the provision is an excellent one if thoroughly carried out, while others regard it as useless for anything more than a detection of obvious defects, physical or otherwise. One Scottish teacher adds that, in his experience: 'Students of this age (fourteen or fifteen years) are generally

[1] Ibid., Arts. 15 (*b*) 1 and (*e*) 1, and Art. 25.

[2] *Supra*, p. 46.

much too timid and bashful to give an opportunity for a real test of their teaching capacity.'

So far as the practical training which he receives is concerned, the Junior Student appears to be in a rather better position than either the Student Teacher or Pupil Teacher in this country. The proportion of time devoted to this part of his preparation is much smaller, being at most not more than one-twentieth of the whole, and the work is more carefully planned. An excellent account of the training is to be found in the Report (1919–20) of the Scottish Education Department on the Training of Teachers.[1] Some of the courses provide not merely for instruction and practice in teaching by means of demonstration and criticism lessons, and for experience in teaching all the usual primary school subjects to children of all ages, but also include a series of lectures on Elementary Psychology and educational experiments, supplemented by talks about educational reformers and the study of one or more text-books. The training seems to be most effective where there are primary, intermediate, and higher departments in the same school.

The most serious charge brought against the Junior Student system by critics is that it involves a great diversion of time and energy from the general education of the pupil. But it is not against the inclusion of practical training that such criticism is mainly directed. The time devoted to this is regarded as being too small to be a very serious hindrance to the student's progress; it is to the inclusion of the additional subjects that strong objection is taken by teachers and taught alike. Hence it comes about that the number of students choosing to enter under Art. 15 (*b*) (1) is steadily increasing.[2] Pupils who enter as Junior Students and who show any ability in their studies are encouraged to enter for the full Leaving Certificate, pursuing fewer subjects to a higher standard, and adding practical training if possible. The declining popularity of the Junior Student course is noted in the most recent reports of the Chief Inspector for the Training of Teachers in Scotland, in which are marshalled

[1] *Scotland, Training of Teachers, Report, Statistics, &c.*, 1920, Sect. II, p. 6 et seq.

[2] Ibid., pp. 5–6. e. g. New entrants (1920–1), Junior Students, 735, a decrease of 78; Art. 15 (*b*), 391, an increase of 134.

the arguments in favour of its retention.[1] The provision of a broader and simpler course for some students, the advantages of an early familiarity with conditions in schools and with the technique of class management, the provision of students with a ' body of reference ' which will be of value to them when in full training are all indicated as benefits accruing to the Junior Student. It is claimed too, that the system engages the interest of a considerable number of teachers in the work of preparing recruits for the profession and enables the unfit to be turned aside at an early stage. Finally, as its greatest justification, the Report urges that it is eminently suited to a particular purpose, namely, the provision of a steady flow of women teachers into Infant and Junior schools where the wastage is greater, where the educational qualifications needed are not so high, nor a prolonged and expensive training so necessary and justifiable.

In view of these claims it is significant that the current of educational opinion should be setting strongly against the system. Glasgow no longer recognizes the Junior Student, and other Authorities are about to follow this example. The Educational Institute of Scotland at the Annual Meeting in 1920 unanimously agreed that ' there should be only one means of entrance to the profession ',[2] that is, via the School Leaving Certificate and the University, and a recent inquiry has shown that not merely the Educational Institute but also the Provincial Committees responsible for the management of the various Training Centres are in favour of the adoption of the full Higher Grade Leaving Certificate as the minimum qualification for all who enter upon a course of training. There is every indication therefore that the desired reform will not long be delayed.

Other methods of preliminary education. Returning now to conditions in England we find that one other group of teachers remains to be noted, namely, those who have not passed through any of the courses of preliminary education and training here described. These, more fortunate than their fellows, have been able to complete a course of secondary education, free from the trammels of any pledge to become a teacher or the distraction of teaching practice in the Elementary Schools.

[1] Ibid., p. 3.
[2] *The Educational Institute of Scotland*, 74th Report, 1920–1, p. 23.

To an increasing degree Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers are coming to prefer students whose general education has suffered no interruption. The majority of these students, however, prefer to enter a University Training Department for a Four-Year Course, and when this has been completed and they emerge with a degree and also professional training they usually elect to take up service in other than Elementary Schools.

Secondary and other Teachers. It is not until we turn to consider this question of preliminary education from the point of view of other types of teachers that we become fully aware how much the Elementary Teacher's earlier preparation has been restricted by the persistence of traditional methods and ideas. With the spread of facilities for secondary education and a corresponding increase in the number of those completing a Secondary School course, the standard of education required of the teachers in Secondary Schools rapidly rose, and to-day, both in England and in Scotland, no appointment is made, at least in grant-earning schools, of any teacher who has not completed a University Degree or who does not possess some qualifications indicative of advanced study. In Scotland, and less frequently in England, there is often added a year of post-graduate study in education. Preliminary education, therefore, usually consists of a Secondary School Course continued until an examination of matriculation standard has been passed.

Of the private Secondary Schools nothing so definite can be asserted; these are among the backwaters of our educational system still awaiting exploration, but the best of them approximate closely in many respects to other Secondary Schools. Teachers of Domestic Subjects, too, normally complete an uninterrupted period in a Secondary School before passing on to a course of training. Only in connexion with Elementary Schools do we still find any limitation of the education of the teacher in the supposed interests of the work he is to do, and to a continuance of this most educationists in England and in Scotland are now opposed.

It remains now to summarize briefly the main conclusions of this chapter. In both England and Scotland we have seen that the majority of teachers for Elementary Schools pass through a

system of preliminary education which involves more or less contact with the Elementary School before entering a training institution. The contact provided for in the Scottish Junior Student system and the English Rural Pupil Teacher system continues throughout a longer period than is the case under the other forms of preliminary education. Both systems involve a serious limitation of the general education of the intending teacher, and for this reason stand self-condemned, even if they did not (as they do) also result in bringing into the profession by an easier channel a number of those whose abilities are, to say the least, indifferent. Such a limitation is less evident in the case of Student Teachers and some of the two-year Pupil Teachers in England, who, as already explained, continue in attendance at the Secondary School full time to the age of seventeen or eighteen. But here the weight of evidence goes to prove that in practice the net result of the division of time between the Elementary and the Secondary School is loss rather than gain, and we have seen that the chief value which can be attributed to any acquaintance with Elementary School conditions prior to entering upon a course of professional training is that thereby an opportunity is afforded for determining how far the intending teacher is likely to find the work congenial or prove in any degree adapted for it. For this a shorter period, effectively organized and at as late a stage as possible, is thought by most educators to be sufficient.

But in addition to the normal methods of arranging for the preliminary education of teachers we find a steadily increasing tendency in Scotland and in England for young people to carry their education to a higher standard before passing on to a course of professional training at a Training College or University. In the former case the student remains at the Secondary School until College is entered, and in the latter case usually postpones professional training until after graduation. Our examination of the present forms of preliminary education justifies us in regarding this tendency as wholly in the right direction, and we may legitimately hope that the time is not far distant when in no case will the preliminary education of a teacher for any grade of school be deemed adequate if it involves less than a full-time and complete course at a Secondary School.

IV

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

We now come to that period in the preparation of the Elementary Teacher for his work when more time is devoted to professional training than at any previous or subsequent stage. If he possesses the necessary qualifications he may pass on to either

(*a*) A Two-Year Course in which professional training proceeds concurrently with general study.

(*b*) A Four-Year Course which includes three years of study for a University Degree followed by a year of professional study.

In addition to these there are also provided

(*c*) A Third-Year Course for approved students who have completed two years of training.

(*d*) A One-Year Course which is either

(i) A Course on similar lines to the Two-Year Course and intended for persons who have obtained the Board's Certificate while teaching, or

(ii) A Course of purely professional training for Graduates or other persons whose general education has already reached a high standard.

The following table[1] gives the number of students who in 1920–1 and 1921–2 completed the respective courses of training.

	Completed successfully.		*Failed to complete successfully.*		*Postponed Examination.*		*Totals.*	
	1920–1	*1921–2*	*1920–1*	*1921–2*	*1920–1*	*1921–2*	*1920–1*	*1921–2*
Two-Year Students	5,419	5,211	452	628	14	53	5,885	5,892
Four-Year ,,	250	413	55	67	1	—	306	480
Third-Year ,,	133	291	2	4	2	—	137	295
One-Year ,,	150	133	—	1	—	—	150	134
Three-Year ,,	107	—	15	—	8	—	130	—
Ex-Service ,,	52	11	—	—	—	—	52	11
	6,111	6,059	524	700	25	53	6,660	6,812

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1920–1, p. 54; 1921–2, p. 63. In the latter year there were also two private students.

Two-Year Students in Training Colleges. It is to the Two-Year Course, followed in an institution known as a Training College, and leading to service in an Elementary School, that we must look for what is still the most distinctive feature in the English system of training teachers. In duration as well as in character it is essentially a compromise. From the three months' training provided by Lancaster at Borough Road, the duration of an approved course was gradually extended by Kay-Shuttleworth and other educationists to approximate more nearly to Stow's eighteen months' course at Glasgow. In time two years came to be regarded as the normal period, and though from 1846 to 1856 the Committee of Council maintained that the ideal course should last for three years, the general weight of opinion and considerations of cost gradually told in favour of the shorter period.[1]

In character, too, the Two-Year Course is a compromise, and again the explanation is an historical one. We have seen how readily Lancaster's mechanical methods of teaching could be learnt, and how speedily men became aware of their limited value in the hands of young teachers with little education. Reformers set to work to improve both the general education and the technical equipment of those whom they wished to send out as teachers, but continued to do both at the same time and in the same institution. The dual character thus impressed upon the Training College has remained a feature of it ever since.

Training Colleges—Types. For administrative purposes Training Colleges are divided into two groups:

1. Colleges provided and maintained by Local Education Authorities (hereafter referred to as Council Colleges).

2. Colleges provided and maintained by Voluntary Bodies.

Each College is required to have a Governing Body with a definite constitution and function. In the former case this is generally a Special Sub-Committee of the Local Education Authority, and in the latter a Council representative of the foundation or denomination providing the College. These Governing Bodies are concerned mainly with the administrative and financial side of the work, the internal organization of the

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, pp. 16, 17, and 46. The Three-Year Course referred to in the table on p. 72 was developed later after the establishment of Day Training Colleges. See pp. 39 and 114.

College being left to the Principal. The Official Correspondent of the College is usually the Secretary to the Local Education Authority in the one case and the Principal in the other. A complete list of Colleges with a few useful details is printed in Appendix B (pp. 399–402). From this and from statistics given in Appendix C (p. 449) it will be seen that the Colleges provided by Voluntary Bodies are more than twice as numerous as those provided by Local Education Authorities. The former provide accommodation for about 2,000 more students than the latter, and the great majority have been provided by the Church of England ; they are residential institutions, and more than two-thirds of them are for women. Only four of the Council Colleges, on the other hand, are entirely residential. The remainder are Day Training Colleges, a term no longer wholly applicable, for a number of them now provide accommodation for students in hostels closely attached to the College.

The extent and the quality of the accommodation in Training Colleges vary considerably, but in all cases the minimum requirements of the Board of Education must be satisfied before recognition can be granted or continued. The premises must include suitable classrooms, lecture rooms, laboratories, dining-rooms and common rooms. There must be a reference library for use by the students, and adequate provision must be made for Physical Training and outdoor games. In all the Colleges of later foundation, and particularly those established by Local Education Authorities since 1904,[1] these minimum requirements have usually been exceeded, and the improved conditions and superior attractions which they offered naturally stimulated older Colleges to increase and improve their accommodation.

In some cases, as for example, the Norwich Diocesan Training College for Schoolmistresses, the Home and Colonial College for Women Teachers, now at Wood Green, and Borough Road itself, the only hope of continuing the work lay in transferring the institution to a new site, resulting in greatly improved conditions. For other Colleges the problem has been one of enlargement and adaptation of existing buildings with results not always entirely satisfactory, though involving a considerable expenditure of

[1] The year in which building grants were resumed. See p. 23, and pp. 255–6.

money and thought. Inconveniently arranged rooms, insufficient space, the lack of accommodation for individual students—these are defects of which no one is more conscious than the Principals themselves, and in several cases one may read of schemes of reconstruction and improvement held up by lack of funds.

Apart from any question of adequacy of accommodation, a comparison of Voluntary Training Colleges founded before 1902 and Council Colleges established since 1904 reveals one marked difference. The older type of College at first consisted of one large block. On the ground-floor were two lecture rooms, one for the men of each ' year ', and a few smaller rooms used as staff or prefects' rooms or for other purposes. Often in the respective wings were the chapel and the Principal's residence. This block still remains as the main portion of the building, and the requirements of the Board of Education have been met by additions and alterations which have left the general character of the original structure unchanged. Most of the Colleges stand in large grounds, several acres in extent.

The main features of the new type of College may be gathered from the official description of the London County Council's College for women at Furzedown :

' The College buildings consist of the main block, including lecture rooms and resident accommodation for forty-seven students, and within the grounds (nine acres in extent) two hostels, one formerly an old mansion. . . . The main building contains a large Assembly Hall, Dining Hall, Music Room, Art Room, Library and Reading Rooms, Common Room, well-fitted Science Laboratory and Nature Study Room. Each hostel has its own Dining Rooms, Common Rooms, and Library. Each student has a separate room furnished as a study-bedroom, so that she may do her private study in her own room.'

To this general plan practically all Council Training Colleges conform. Some, as for example the Leeds City College, have been built and equipped on a very generous scale, and have at times been referred to as ' the last word in Training College construction '. The hostels or halls of residence are self-contained and near at hand, and provision of this kind, compulsory for women students—except such as are able to reside with their parents [1]—is gradually being made for men students in

[1] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 24 (*d*).

attendance at Colleges for both sexes who have hitherto been allowed to reside in approved lodgings in the town.

The staffing of Training Colleges in receipt of grants has, since 1904, been to a considerable extent controlled by the Board of Education. The Principal (whose appointment is subject to their approval) must in all but very exceptional cases be an Honours Graduate of a British University, and must, as a rule, for a women's College be a woman. In Colleges for both men and women [1] a responsible woman Vice-Principal is necessary, and the College must also be staffed by men and women in reasonable proportions. The Principal of a Church of England Training College for men is usually a clergyman, and there are still a few clerical heads of women's Colleges who have a long record of honourable service. These, under the operation of the regulations of the Board, will gradually be replaced by women.

Two-thirds of the whole teaching staff of a College recognized for the first time must hold approved University qualifications, and in existing Colleges alternate vacancies must be filled with persons holding such qualifications until the required proportion is reached.[2] The percentage of graduates on the staffs of Voluntary Training Colleges in 1913–14 was 62·1, as compared with 82·4 per cent. for University Training Departments and 73·2 per cent. for Council Training Colleges. Corresponding figures for 1919–20 are not available, but we may note that the percentage of graduates on the staffs of all Training Colleges, as distinct from University Training Departments, at that time was 62·6.[3]

From another point of view the staffs of Training Colleges may be regarded as consisting of two groups. The first group, forming in 1914 rather more than 50 per cent. of the total for all Colleges, is made up of Certificated Teachers, many of whom are ex-students of the older Training Colleges, while some of them have been engaged in Training College work for a long period. In one College over 80 per cent. of the Staff are old

[1] Numbering ten in 1919–20, all Council Colleges, and representing a definite phase in the Training College movement.

[2] Unless this regulation were interpreted as applying only to the non-graduate members of the Staff, it is difficult to see how it could produce the desired result. Strictly applied, the effect would merely be to equalize the numbers of graduates and non-graduates.

[3] For details see Appendix C, p. 449.

students. Wherever they are to be found it may fairly be assumed that their influence is on the whole in favour of a continuance of traditional customs and methods, and it occasionally happens that the supervision of the purely administrative and domestic side of the College is deputed to them. Their interest in the Old Students' Club or Guild is, as a rule, a very great factor in its success. The second group comprises most of the later additions to the Staff. Owing to the necessity of providing advanced instruction in certain subjects, the more recently appointed lecturers are almost always specialists in one subject, their qualifications being represented by an Honours Degree of some British University. Ability to teach a subsidiary subject is usually required, but experience in teaching does not appear to be regarded as essential. Hence these posts are often filled by men and women who have recently graduated. In addition to full-time lecturers, each College employs visiting teachers of such subjects as Music and Art, and there is reason to believe that the qualifications of these are steadily improving.[1]

Life in Training Colleges. Life in most residential Training Colleges is arranged on approximately the same general plan. Lectures and study usually occupy the mornings, games, demonstration lessons, or practical subjects the afternoons, private study with possibly a lecture fills the time after tea until supper, and there is a little free time before going to bed. Saturday afternoon and evening are usually left free, and Sunday, from morning roll-call until evening is, as a rule, at the students' disposal. In many denominational Colleges attendance at the College Chapel forms part of the daily routine for all except such as are specially exempt. In a College wholly residential the students are usually confined to the College premises during stated hours, unless practical teaching in schools necessitates their presence elsewhere. Where there are hostels arrangements are of necessity more elastic, and in Training Colleges which are not wholly residential some of the formal lecture work and study takes place in the afternoon, on the whole a less satisfactory arrangement.[2]

[1] In 1919–20 there were 239 part-time teachers employed in Training Colleges as distinct from University Training Departments. (*Statistics*, 1919–20, Table 172, p. 156.)

[2] For typical time-tables see Appendix B, p. 413.

Sports and Volunteer Corps[1] have for a long time been prominent features of the older Colleges for men. The former have been developed still more in recent years, but the place of the latter has largely been taken by physical training on more modern lines. The development of outdoor games in women's Colleges has been very rapid, and is not the least valuable of the results of association with the Secondary School during the period of preliminary education.

Another pleasing feature in most Colleges to-day is the activity of students in connexion with societies and clubs of different kinds—athletic, social, literary, dramatic, debating—the doings of which furnish much of the material for the College Magazines, published at intervals varying from three to twelve months. These societies are usually run by committees of students under the general supervision of some member of the Staff, and the Magazine forms also an important link between the College and its old students, news of whom figures prominently in its pages.

The disciplinary arrangements in Colleges are modelled on those in Secondary Schools. Rules are drawn up by the Staff for the guidance of students,[2] and individual lecturers are responsible for dealing with or reporting such breaches of discipline as may come under their notice. In the majority of Colleges there is a well-established prefect system whereby certain students, selected usually by the Staff, are responsible for the general discipline of their fellows in all but the formal lecture or private study periods. Only in a few cases is this control delegated to prefects chosen by the students themselves, and the power of inflicting punishment rests, as a general rule, with the Staff. Such punishment as may be necessary usually takes the form of ' gating ' or confinement to College, in one case, alas ! with the addition of work in the library, a sure antidote to the development of reading habits. For more serious offences, which on the whole are not very frequent, the student may be suspended or expelled, subject to the approval of the Board of Education. The main responsibility for discipline rests either on the Principal or, more frequently, on the shoulders of the second officer of the College, generally known as the Vice-Principal. Upon their ideas

[1] One College Company, that of Bede College, Durham, had a splendid record in the war.

[2] For examples see Appendix B, pp. 417–18.

of discipline depend the degree of responsibility devolved upon the prefects and the amount of liberty allowed to the students. At the one extreme may be found a régime characterized by a student as an ' iron rule ', at the other a freedom which another student designates as ' absolute ', because resulting from the absence of all petty rules imposed by those in authority.

Correspondence which has recently appeared in the columns of the *Schoolmaster* [1] confirms this general estimate. Ex-Service men, older than the ordinary student, found the restrictions of College life, the observance of rules, and control by prefects very galling, younger students much less so. ' Mediaeval treatment ' and ' Boarding School run on old-fashioned lines ' may be set against such phrases as ' a community which practically governs itself ', ' a College which the pick of men wish to enter because of the life ', as indicative both of a difference of opinion, and also of a wide variation in the treatment accorded to students. Nevertheless, allowing for these variations, we may say that the atmosphere of most Training Colleges corresponds on the whole to that found in a Secondary School rather than in a University.

Candidates for admission to a Training College must satisfy the following requirements :

1. They must be over seventeen years of age (the usual age of admission is eighteen) and have passed an approved examination.

2. They must satisfy the Training College and the Board of Education (by means of a Medical Certificate in a prescribed form) that their state of health is satisfactory, and that they are free from serious bodily defect or deformity.

3. They must sign a declaration of their intention to follow the profession of a teacher.

The last two require but a brief notice. Grants are paid in respect of the intending teacher, and when he reaches the age of eighteen, and obtains the necessary qualifications to rank as an Uncertificated Teacher, his future service may, under certain circumstances, be accepted as recognized or qualifying service for a State pension.[2] For this reason he is required at

[1] In November and December, 1922.

[2] Recognized service has been aptly defined as ' time not money '. It may be included in calculating the minimum number of years required for eligibility but adds nothing to the pension. Qualifying service does both.

various stages in his career to produce satisfactory medical certificates as to physical fitness for the profession, a perfectly legitimate means employed by the Board to avoid a misapplication of public funds.

The third requirement has an intimate connexion with questions of State-aid and the supply of teachers, to both of which we shall return in later chapters. The present form of declaration has only recently been introduced,[1] but represents a reversion to the policy adopted prior to 1907. In that year the existing declaration was replaced by a form of undertaking which required the student to serve in a school or institution recognized by the Board, for a period of seven years within the first ten if a man, or if a woman five years within the first eight, after the completion of a course of training. The agreement was legally binding, and non-compliance with the conditions rendered the student liable to repay to the Board some portion of the amount expended upon him. The stringency with which this undertaking was enforced varied considerably, defaulting being generally overlooked when there was an over-supply of teachers, and a student who from ill-health or other valid reasons left the profession being at all times dealt with leniently.

The examination qualifications required of students who wish to enter a Training College have already been indicated in the preceding chapter, and we are now free to consider with what material Training College staffs have to deal. Recent evidence on this point is forthcoming in the Departmental Committee's Report on the Teaching of English already quoted in another connexion.

'We have been told very definitely by Training College witnesses', say the Committee, 'that numbers of students arrive at College ill found in respect of English and that this applies to pupils from Secondary Schools as well as to Rural Pupil Teachers. Such students are said to be . . . defective in capacity for using or understanding English. . . .' Other witnesses speak in much the same way of these young people. 'They were more defective in Composition than in Reading. They made elementary faults in a simple sentence, they had not the power of putting things

[1] 1 August 1922. See *B. of E. Circ. 1271*, and for Form of Declaration see *Regns. or Training of Teachers*, 1922, Appendix B.

together logically, but the root evil was they had nothing to say. . . .' 'The standard was also deplorably bad in the case of students taking University Degrees.'[1] Confirmatory evidence as to the poor quality of the students' work in English is also adduced from the Board of Education's Report for 1919–20, in which the results in English of the Preliminary Certificate are noted. The Examiner states that 'taking as a standard the work which can reasonably be expected from young persons of fair ability who have been properly educated up to the age of seventeen the results were very poor. Sensible, thoughtful and well expressed essays were very scarce.'[2]

Three explanations of this low standard were offered to the Departmental Committee. The first was that 'the students were far from representative of the older Secondary School pupils, but were mostly average or even below average Form V Scholars'. The second cause adduced was 'the lowness of the Standard in English in some of the qualifying examinations accepted by the Board for entrance to a Training College', and the third the interruption of studies caused by the Student Teacher year.[3] The last of these we have already discussed at some length,[4] and the criticism of the lowness of the standard in English will, it is hoped, become less applicable now that approved First Examinations are to be more alike in character and in standard. The first statement emphasizes the fact to which we have already called attention, that the present system of recruiting teachers fails to secure the best children for the profession. Indeed, one Training College lecturer's experience led to the conclusion 'that the dregs of a Secondary School often turned to Elementary Teaching *faute de mieux*'.

There is therefore considerable justification for regarding the material with which Training Colleges are supplied as far from satisfactory. Even had we no other evidence of a low standard of general ability and attainments than that quoted by the Departmental Committee, we have it on the authority of so experienced a psychologist as Mr. Burt that 'of all the single scholastic tests the one which gives the best estimate of general

[1] *B. of E. Report on the Teaching of English*, 1921, pp. 171–2.
[2] Quoted in the *Report on the Teaching of English* (1921), p. 173.
[3] Ibid., pp. 172–3.
[4] *Supra*, ch. ii, pp. 47–56.

ability is an exercise in English Composition set as a test in reasoning—and marked (i.e. judged) for power of coherent logical thought '.[1]

This is not the place to examine too closely the work done by these young people in the Secondary School, and we have already indicated some of the educational disadvantages of the Rural Pupil Teacher system. Even making allowance for the poorness of the material at the outset, there is little doubt that the inadequacy of their preparation is a serious drawback, and renders the work of Training College staffs much less effective than it might otherwise be. The position of the Two-Year College in this respect is probably worse than that of any other training institution, for, as the Principal of one of them pointedly remarked, ' The ablest of the pupils in the Secondary School have no desire to become teachers. Of those who wish to enter the profession the best pass on to the University, and the remainder come to us '.

The selection of students for admission to a particular College is in the hands of the Governing Body, acting normally through the Principal. Applications must be entered in the order in which they are received, and, if the candidate is refused admission, the reasons for refusal must be stated, and shown, if required, to the Board, to whom the student has a right of appeal. No student may be refused admission on the ground of non-vaccination or of social antecedents, and in the selection of candidates for half the number of places no religious test may be imposed by the authorities of a denominational college. In practice a student's choice of the College to which he will apply is determined by a number of considerations. If the Education Authority in whose area he has received his preliminary education maintains a College, it will be to his advantage financially to enter it as a student. If he wishes to study for a degree, he will either enter a University Training Department or select a Training College which provides the necessary facilities. But if not so ambitious, he may be guided in his choice by an old student, possibly the Head Teacher of the Elementary School to which he has been attached. In this way a College may continue for years to draw its students from very much the same areas,

[1] Cyril Burt, *The Distribution and Relations of Educational Abilities*, p. 55.

though these may be a considerable distance apart. This is especially true of the older colleges provided by voluntary bodies. Council Training Colleges, on the other hand, have always drawn primarily upon the area of the Authority providing them, and secondarily on adjacent areas. The proportion of students from a distant part of the country is therefore relatively small. To this the Board of Education called attention in the Annual Report for 1912–13, as a defect likely to aggravate the evil of 'inbreeding'.[1] Most teachers tend to return after training to the areas from which they came, and the intermingling with students from other parts of the country has always been a striking characteristic of the older system of non-local Colleges.

In practice the degree of selection of students exercised by College authorities depends to a great extent on the supply of intending teachers. In the earlier days of the Training College system, when the provision of places in College was totally inadequate to meet the demands for admission, the deciding factor was usually the position on the Queen's Scholarship list.[2] Certain Colleges, owing to the superior advantages and higher standard of teaching which they provided, attracted the best of the students, and the tradition thus established continues to this day, with the difference that probably for the first time in their history even the best of the Colleges for men are finding it difficult to secure sufficient students. The Colleges for women, on the other hand, are full and are able to exercise a considerable amount of choice.[3]

Course of Study. The Course of Study followed in a Training College for Two-Year students is, in the majority of cases, that laid down by the Regulations of the Board of Education. As was indicated in the historical sketch given in Chapter I (p. 25), the Board of Education began in 1901 to allow Colleges to draw up syllabuses for their students upon which they (the Board) might examine, or to enter their students for various examinations conducted by a University.[4] A number of Colleges took advantage of these concessions, but, considering that many of the syllabuses, and of the students, were much too ambitious, and finding great difficulty in maintaining a fairly uniform standard,

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, p. 43. Cf. pp. 88–9 *infra*.

[2] Cf. ch. ix, pp. 210–11.

[3] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, p. 30.

the Board withdrew their consent to these arrangements in a number of cases, and to-day only a very small proportion of students in Training Colleges sit for other examinations. Of a total of 5,419 Two-Year Students completing their course satisfactorily in 1920–1, 3,877 were examined by the Board, as against 1,237 examined by their Colleges, while the remainder, 305 in number, took some examination for a University Degree.[1] Thus the determination of the fitness or otherwise of the majority of candidates to rank as qualified teachers rests still, as it always has done since 1847, with the Board of Education, an arrangement open to certain obvious objections which it will be necessary to discuss at a later stage.

The syllabus prescribed by the Board for the Two-Year Student has of recent years undergone important modifications.[2] Under the existing arrangement students are required to study what are termed professional subjects—Principles and Practice of Teaching, Hygiene, and Physical Training, the first of these including Voice Training, Reading and Recitation, together with Drawing and Handwork so far as necessary for teaching purposes. The remaining subjects are arranged in two groups as shown below. In each subject there may be an ordinary and an advanced course.

GROUP A

Courses of Ordinary Standard.	*Courses of Advanced Standard.*
English	English (Advanced)
History	History (Advanced)
Geography	Geography (Advanced)
Mathematics	Mathematics (Advanced)
Elementary Science	Physics, Chemistry, Botany
Welsh	Welsh (Advanced)
	French

GROUP B

Singing and Theory of Music	Music (Advanced)
Drawing	Drawing (Advanced)
Needlework and Handwork (for women)	Housecraft (for women)
	Special Handwork
	Gardening

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1920–1, p. 54.

[2] Ibid., pp. 65–6.

Students who wish to prepare for teaching older scholars (eleven years of age and over) are required to take at least four of these grouped subjects, one being studied to an advanced stage. Of these four subjects two should, as a rule, be chosen from Group A (one of advanced standard) and one from Group B. The fourth may be chosen from either group. Students preparing for work in ordinary Elementary Schools, i.e. those attended by children from five to fourteen years of age, must study five of these subjects, two being chosen from each Group and the fifth from either Group A or Group B. Of the subjects chosen from Group A one must always be English.[1]

The aim in making the modifications to which we referred above has been, according to the Board, to reduce the number of subjects required, and so to render more time available for professional work in the schools, or for work of a high standard in any one subject. The number of general subjects to be studied by two-year students (in addition to the compulsory professional subjects) is now reduced to four or five as compared with the six or seven which formerly were required.[2]

Turning to the requirements of the Board as to professional training, we may note that, in addition to a study of the subjects already enumerated as professional subjects, the student must undertake some practical work in Elementary Schools. If he is without any previous teaching experience, a minimum of twelve weeks must be spent in class teaching under adequate supervision. Otherwise the period may vary from six to twelve weeks according to the circumstances of the particular case. At least half the period of training must in any case fall during the second year of the College course.

The other types of course open to Two-Year Students should be mentioned here. Colleges which are allowed by the Board to arrange for an alternative method of examination may draw up their own syllabuses for the purpose, but these usually follow the same general lines as those for the Board's own examination. Students in a Training College are also permitted to

[1] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, ch. iv. In special cases a student may offer a larger number of subjects (but not more than six) and may pursue more than one to an advanced stage.

[2] One College, Whitelands, confines all students to the smaller number of subjects.

enter for a University Examination forming a recognized stage towards a degree, in place of the Board's examination in general subjects.[1] They must in addition take the Board's examination (or an approved equivalent) in professional subjects, with the possible exception of Hygiene and Physical Training. Such students, however, must already be qualified on entrance to become matriculated students of a University without further examination. Furthermore, they must be certified by the Medical Officer of the College as physically fit to stand the extra strain, and if health gives way, or due progress is not made, must abandon the Degree Course. The Board also require that the College Staff should be adequate for the provision of the necessary instruction without detriment to the work of the other students.

A detailed examination of the prescribed syllabuses would be rather beyond the scope of this survey,[2] though a report of the proceedings at a recent conference of Principals and Staffs of Training Colleges held at Bangor[3] (the first of its kind) shows that they are open to criticism; moreover, the reorganization of the Training College Association into Subject Sections has rendered such criticism more effective. Our consideration of the Training College curriculum must be more general in character.

To make a satisfactory comparison of courses of study is not easy at any time and there is a danger of leaving out of sight certain important factors. Not merely must we compare the scope of the syllabuses and the type of questions in subjects common to both, but also the standard of work and of marking. In scope Training College syllabuses for ordinary courses in general subjects appear to correspond approximately to Higher Local Examinations or to matriculation examinations in the newer Universities, those in advanced subjects to the intermediate examinations for degrees. But in the interpretation of these syllabuses in terms of instruction and of work Training Colleges are at a disadvantage owing to their isolation, a disadvantage only realized by those who come to them after a course of study or of teaching at a University. Indeed, in most

[1] For numbers see p. 84. [2] For extracts see Appendix B, pp. 403–9.

[3] *The Journal of Pedagogy and Training College Record*, June and December, 1922 (vol. vi, nos. 5 and 6), pp. 318 et seq.

colleges having no real connexion with a University—and these are the great majority [1]—the standard for the staff and students tends to be determined by the requirements for a pass in the final examination, which we shall discuss later in this chapter.

Again, for the past twenty-five years at least, complaints have been made as to the overcrowded character of the curriculum. These complaints still continue, and it is clear from even so brief an account as we have given that the Two-Year Course is a full one in spite of recent modifications. To the outsider the number of subjects to be studied seems in itself a sufficient justification for the charge. But that the question is hardly so simple the views of lecturers and students make abundantly clear. The curriculum, say the former, pleases only mediocre minds. To these it tends to give a narrow view of their general studies, and the problem becomes merely one of passing a final examination in a certain number of subjects at the end of two years. These are rather over-worried than over-worked. Some students do not feel any strain at all. They accept the system uncritically and the way is smoothed for them by the College Staff, who take upon themselves the burden of mapping out each student's work. The students who suffer most are the more able. For these there is insufficient time, even now, to get the best out of the advanced courses, and owing to the variety of subjects to be studied and, it should be added, to be taught, they tend, moreover, to deteriorate. This one critic regards as inevitable owing to the constant change of mental attitude involved in approaching the same subject from different levels.

Expressions of opinion obtained from students recently in College confirm these views. 'The life', says one, 'was too rushed and strenuous . . . and the course ought to have taken three years instead of two', a verdict which a number of students, particularly the women, endorse. Another complains of the lack of time for real study. On the other hand, as one would expect, if the views of College lecturers are of any value, there are those who feel no such strain, one student even asserting that the curriculum did not seem overcrowded, but 'rather the opposite'. Another offers an explanation, 'Considering the standard required in the various subjects the curriculum was not

[1] Cf. ch. xiv, p. 359 et seq.

over-crowded', thus confirming the soundness of our earlier criticism.[1]

To the independent observer it seems clear that something in the nature of congestion exists, of which the principal cause is that concurrent pursuit of general studies and professional training to which we have already referred. As long ago as 1898 Professor Findlay suggested that the Two-Year Course might be divided into two parts, 'the first, of perhaps eighteen months, being devoted to general studies, the last six months spent exclusively in professional training'.[2] This suggestion was still being put forward as a desirable reform in 1908,[3] but little further progress in this direction has been made. Existing arrangements for examination in all subjects at the end of the second year present obvious difficulties, but, even so, some Colleges arrange for the bulk of the practical work to fall in the second year, and one College recently tried the experiment of assigning the first year to general subjects and the second to the special study of one subject and to professional training. For some students one year proved insufficient for the general subjects and they had to be continued in the second year. These suggestions and experiments serve to emphasize the fact that 'even now professional training . . . occupies less than half . . . of the Two-Year Course, and the common statement on a teacher's part that he was trained for two years . . . is not in strictness correct . . . and conveys a wrong impression of the facts of the case'.[4] In other words, the greater part of the time has to be devoted to the general education of students rather than to instruction in the principles and practice of teaching.

A further cause of congestion, more particularly from the point of view of the Staff, is to be found in the varying attainments and range of knowledge of students on entrance, a disadvantage against which many colleges endeavour to protect themselves by a careful selection of entrants, preferring those qualifying by means of approved School Examinations, or with distinction in some subject in the Preliminary Certificate

[1] See also pp. 100–2.

[2] *B. of E. Special Reports*, vol. ii, pp. 360–1.

[3] *Training College Record*, March 1908. Address by the President of the Training College Association.

[4] A. W. Newton, *The English Elementary School*, pp. 206–7.

Examination. Much attention has often to be devoted to the more backward students in order to ensure their success in the Final Examinations; when staffs are small the work of the remainder is likely to suffer. Such a variation in qualifications would be greatly reduced with the insistence on a complete Secondary School course for all teachers, the requirement of a higher entrance qualification, and the consequent abolition of the Preliminary Certificate Examination.

After these criticisms the reader may look askance at proposals for adding to an already overburdened curriculum, but a suggestion sometimes made is worthy of note. It is thought that some study of social conditions might very well form part of the training of every teacher, and in practically all courses for the training of teachers for Continuation Schools provision of this kind has been made.[1] It is questionable whether under existing arrangements anything more than an incidental treatment of social conditions is either possible or desirable for the Two-Year Student, but in any revision of our training system it would be worth considering whether something more might not be attempted.[2] The teacher, more than almost any other member of the community, needs to be saved from a narrow outlook, and to be given a wider knowledge of the life of the community of which he and his pupils alike are members.

Methods of Instruction. When we examine the methods of instruction prevailing in Training Colleges we realize that there is a wide range of efficiency. This is shown only too clearly by evidence collected from a considerable number of Colleges, but that a steady improvement has taken place within the last fifteen years is equally clear to any one who compares accounts of College life and work in the early years of the twentieth century with the experience of students recently in training. The increasing number of lecturers who have carried their own studies to the standard of a University Degree, often an Honours

[1] See ch. xiv, pp. 353–4, and cf. America (p. 299) and France (p. 323).

[2] An interesting experiment has recently been tried at Saltley C. E. Training College. About 80 per cent. of the students serve on After-Care Committees, visiting the homes of children about to leave school and advising both parents and children as to employment, further education, and general social matters. Lectures and addresses by experts to the students are arranged from time to time.

Degree in some subject, has had the effect of liberalizing considerably the interpretation of the syllabuses laid down by the Board. This is perhaps most true of the teaching of Literature and History, and of the Advanced rather than the Ordinary Courses. A recent report of the Board of Education confirms this. Comparing the papers in English in the Final Examination of that year with those in pre-war days, the Examiners say that ' In the Advanced Course this upward tendency is clearly marked. There is more to suggest individual thought and appreciation: there is less echo of orthodox criticism at second hand ', but ' A great and depressing mass of feeble thought and crude expression remains ',[1] presumably in the work of those students who had followed the Ordinary Course.

The predominant method of instruction in general subjects is by means of the lecture. The number and arrangement of these is determined by the adequacy of the staff and of the classroom accommodation, and, since the days of Advanced Courses, by the varying needs of the students. The time-table of a Training College presents a bewildering appearance to the uninitiated,[2] and the work of different Colleges is organized in so many ways that it is difficult to convey more than a very general idea of it in a short space. In the case of first-year students, and for those taking ordinary courses, the groups are sometimes fairly large, in some subjects the whole ' year ', say fifty or sixty students, being taken together.

At one College each ' year ' is divided into three groups of approximately twenty to thirty students. For some subjects and courses, e.g. the Ordinary Course in English, two of these groups are taken together; in other subjects or courses lectures are repeated to different groups. The number of students taking an advanced course in a given subject varies,[3] but as the groups are usually much smaller, more freedom in method is found and is greatly appreciated. Thus we find a group discussing a topic connected with the subject being studied, or hearing and discussing a specially prepared essay by one of the students.

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1919–20, par. 186.

[2] For an example see Appendix B, p. 414–16.

[3] Students choose their subjects for advanced study subject to more or less direction from the Staff. The choice is usually deferred until the end of the first College term, sometimes longer.

Day excursions to places of interest in connexion with History, Geography, or Nature Study are not uncommon, and small parties of students sometimes spend a longer period (a week-end or a week) in a prolonged visit of observation of this kind.[1] Two women's Colleges [2] recently arranged for an exchange of small groups of Senior Students for one week, thus overcoming difficulties of accommodation and guidance, and promoting useful intercourse between students drawn from different parts of the country.

In practically every College lecturers are willing to help individual students when asked, but it is usually only a few of the advanced students who obtain anything approaching individual attention. To adapt the 'tutorial' system to the somewhat unfavourable conditions prevailing in these institutions is difficult, but the attempt is sometimes made. In one College, for example, it has been found an excellent plan to assign the students in small 'tutorial groups' to the lecturers, each of whom is responsible for the members of a group, giving advice and supervision, and guiding students in the arrangement of their private study.

Time is allowed in all Colleges for private study, and the way in which this is used is an excellent criterion of the value of the College as an educational institution. In some instances there is still too much 'direction': in many cases, however, a certain amount of freedom is allowed to students in planning their studies and in the use of the library. It is here that lecturers call attention to a very real difficulty which they have to overcome, namely, the inability of the young people who come to them to use books, to study, that is, in any real sense of the term. Much valuable time, they say, is wasted in training the first-year students in habits of study, work which should have been done at an earlier stage. The students themselves complain of another disadvantage under which they labour, namely, the absence of any quiet and convenient place in which to study. In some Colleges the large lecture rooms are still the places where most of this work has to be done, at times under very great

[1] Second-year students from the Cheshire County Training College at Crewe spend a week each year at Llanberis, N. Wales.

[2] Whitelands and Salisbury.

difficulties; in others students have the choice of lecture room or library. Study rooms for small groups of students are a further improvement in the direction of providing reasonable facilities, but these are only found in one or two of the older Colleges, and study bedrooms practically only in the Colleges erected by County and Borough Councils. The need for such facilities is appreciated by the College Staffs, and even where they do not exist we find an increasing tendency to make much better use of existing accommodation. For example, in one College the students are allowed to use their cubicles for private study and reading, and in others much use is made of the College grounds in the summer time, concessions which would at one time have been regarded as subversive of all discipline and order.

Formal lectures play a much less important part in the professional than in the academic side of the work. Discussions, demonstrations, experiments by the lecturers or by selected students, essays read before groups of students and discussed by them, all figure prominently even in the more theoretical part of professional training. Instances of special lines of development might be given, but what needs to be most emphasized is a change which has taken place within recent years.

A comparison of the qualifications of College Staffs to-day and, say, ten or fifteen years ago, provides external evidence of an internal change of considerable moment so far as professional training is concerned. Formerly the whole of this work was entrusted to a Master of Method, who gave short courses of lectures in Psychology, of a kind, (possibly also in Logic and Ethics), and in the Principles and Practice of Teaching with special reference to the organization of Elementary Schools and the teaching of the chief subjects included in their curriculum. He was also at one time the Head of the 'Model School' which was almost always attached to the College. The other lecturers divided the various subjects of the College curriculum between them, often in a somewhat haphazard fashion, and with little reference to qualifications.

Such an arrangement, however, rarely prevails to-day. The Master of Method,[1] where the title is still retained, is responsible

[1] Some women's Colleges have two Mistresses of Method, one of whom deals principally with students preparing for work in Infant and Junior Schools.

for the general arrangement of the practical side of the students' professional training. Often, it is true, he gives such instruction in the Theory of Education (Principles of Teaching, &c.) as may be included in the College syllabus, but in other cases he may deal rather with the methods of teaching one or more subjects of which he has made a special study, leaving the Theory of Education to be dealt with by another lecturer. Unlike his predecessor, however, he does not carry out the practical training of the students without the assistance of the remainder of the Staff. To an increasing degree it is required that Training College lecturers shall, in addition to lecturing on their subjects, initiate students into the special methods of teaching them, and take their share in supervising teaching practice in the schools. Such a change is highly desirable and tends to make the training more synthetic. As to the competence of the lecturers to undertake the work, it is neither easy nor safe to generalize without much personal knowledge extending over a long period, but two points at least may be noted. The technical qualifications of many of the more recently appointed consist of a University Diploma in Education, and practical experience in teaching has in many cases been gained in Secondary Schools. Thus, while they may bring to their work a different and in many ways a wider outlook than that of their older colleagues whose main or only experience has been in the Elementary School or Training College, and whose technical qualifications are represented by the Board of Education Certificate, yet their instruction is often felt by students to be lacking in definiteness, and the methods which they recommend to be such as presuppose conditions very different from those actually prevailing in the great majority of Elementary Schools. The type of training represented by a University Diploma will be more evident when we have considered the training of teachers for Secondary Schools. The lack of a personal knowledge of Elementary School conditions is undoubtedly a disadvantage, not because the methods to be followed in teaching a given subject in an Elementary School are necessarily different from those appropriate to the teaching of children of the same age in other schools, but because a failure on the part of a lecturer to realize these conditions prevents him from adequately equipping the student to contend with them, with the result that he

frequently loses enthusiasm, follows the line of least resistance, and reverts to methods which in his better moments he knows full well ought to be discarded.

Such a criticism is less applicable to those Colleges or departments of Colleges which specialize in the training of teachers of young children. Here the teachers, with few exceptions, have had practical experience of the kind required. Here, too, is the growing-point of our Training College, nay, of our educational system. Again and again the impulse to progress has come from those who have had the care of younger children, and it is in the infant and junior schools of this country that the most radical changes have taken place.[1]

The arrangements for practical work in schools vary considerably according to the facilities at the disposal of the College. The six to twelve weeks required by the Board is spent partly in a Demonstration or a Practising School attached to the College, and partly in other schools to which the students go for additional teaching experience. The Demonstration School, as its name implies, is intended to be as it were a laboratory for lecturers and students, in which particular methods may be demonstrated and others tried under conditions to a certain (though in practice a very limited) extent under control. In the Practising School, on the other hand, the student may learn how to work under everyday conditions, and observes or takes his part in the ordinary routine of the school.

Provision for the practical training of students in the earlier Voluntary Colleges was made by establishing 'Model Schools' which had to serve all purposes and were entirely under the control of the Colleges. After 1902, however, these schools were assimilated to the educational system of the area in which they were situated, becoming in most cases provided schools, with four out of the six Managers appointed by the College Council, the other two being representatives of the Minor Local Authorities. As in other provided schools, the Managers have the right to appoint the Head Teacher, subject to the approval of the Local Education Authority, and exercise more or less influence in the appointment of the remainder of the Staff.

The movement in favour of Demonstration (as distinct from

[1] Cf. ch. vii, pp. 148–58.

Practising) Schools has progressed but slowly, partly from financial reasons but mainly because there is no real agreement as to the advisability of setting aside a school specifically for experimental purposes. In 1905 an unsuccessful attempt was made to secure special grants for schools of this type, and since 1907 the Regulations of the Board of Education have directed that, as a rule, Demonstration Schools should be provided.[1] Only a few Colleges, however, have complied with this requirement. In a few cases the Demonstration School is a non-provided school assigned for the purpose by the Local Education Authority, special provision being made for securing co-operation between the staffs of School and College.

Some of the schools in the towns and districts in which a Training College is situated are used as additional Practising Schools for the students. Indeed, it is a condition of recognition of any Elementary School as eligible to receive grants that it shall be available, if need be, for the training of students.[2] Schools selected for this purpose must be approved by the Board of Education as suitable in respect of staff, premises, and equipment.[3] It is clear, however, that Colleges situated in or near large towns such as London, Birmingham, Liverpool, enjoy in this matter considerable advantages, although, unless care is taken in the selection of schools, these may be counteracted by the disadvantages of too great a uniformity of type and too much similarity in curricula and methods, the latter due not infrequently to the systematizing and sterilizing influence of the Local Education Authority's inspectorate. For the less favourably situated Colleges the problem is more difficult, and often it is necessary to supplement the longer periods spent in local schools by visits of shorter duration to selected schools in other areas. Thus, for example, students from Culham College, near Oxford, situated in a rural area, visit schools in Birmingham, Bristol, London, and other centres, and students from Truro, a women's College in the south-west, go to schools in Plymouth, Devonport, Camborne, Redruth, and Penzance.

For a great part of their practical training students are divided

[1] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 22 (*d*).
[2] *B. of E. Elementary Education Provisional Code*, 1922, par. 54 (*a*).
[3] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 22 (*e*).

into groups of varying sizes. With larger groups (occasionally the whole of the Senior or Junior ' Year ') demonstration lessons may be taken either by one of the lecturers, or, less frequently, by one of the more able students. These take place in one of the larger rooms of the College, a class of children being brought over from a neighbouring school for the purpose.

Smaller groups are arranged for the formal criticism lessons which still form an important feature of the training in many Colleges. On these occasions a student has to teach before his fellows and one or more members of the College staff for purposes of criticism and discussion. Sometimes a book of very elaborate ' criticism forms ' is supplied for the purpose, and in other cases the students are merely given a few general headings for guidance.[1] Finally, for the longer period of continuous teaching in school students are sent in small batches to selected Elementary Schools and work under the general direction of a member of the College Staff. The exact time in each year when this longer school practice takes place varies. In the case of students who enter College direct from Secondary Schools the experiment has recently been tried of arranging for some portion of it to take place in vacation, and practically all of it is completed early in the second year. For a student with no practical experience the first period in an Elementary School is regarded as an opportunity for determining the type of school for which he is to be prepared—junior, senior, or (in the case of women teachers) infants. The fact that this decision has already been made by many Student Teachers and Pupil Teachers, and that their previous experience in school reduces the amount of school practice which they have to do in their College course, is the chief reason why some of these young people do not regard the earlier period as wholly wasted.

We have referred to the increased participation of the College staff in the practical training of students, but the way in which this is usually arranged is open to criticism. Each lecturer is responsible for a group of students, not more than ten in number, and a great part of his time is taken up with hearing lessons and supervising the teaching of subjects of which, conceivably, he may be totally ignorant. Lecturers feel that there is at times an element of ludicrousness in the situation whereby (to quote

[1] For a specimen form see Appendix B, pp. 418–19.

one of them) 'the History lecturer listens to a lesson on tadpoles'. To confine each lecturer exclusively to one subject would neither be possible nor wholly desirable, and admittedly there are difficulties of organization owing to the number and varying needs of the students. But more use might often be made of a lecturer's special knowledge and in some Colleges steps are taken to ensure this, the success of which depends on the degree of collaboration between members of the staff—not merely of the College but of the schools visited by the students. In some Colleges collaboration is secured by means of weekly staff conferences, and where local schools are used for teaching practice the Head Teachers are invited to meet the College staff from time to time, not merely for the mutual exchange of compliments, but for a general consideration of the ways and means of making the best use of the time at the disposal of the students. That co-operation is essential is proved by the experience of those Colleges whose students have been less fortunate. The conservative and critical attitude maintained at times by Head Teachers is a very real hindrance to young students, engendering lack of confidence both in themselves and in the College staff, and tending to quench in them at the outset of their career that spirit of adventure and inquiry which is so essential if they are to make effective leaders of the young.

The arrangements for professional training we have just described do not pass uncriticized by teachers now serving in the schools. Many regard the type of training given to-day as too theoretical, and at the opposite extreme we have those who regard it as too mechanical and unscientific. Such criticisms serve to bring out two widely differing conceptions as to the true function of a training course for intending teachers. According to the traditional view the course should first and foremost give technical training in class management and methods of teaching the subjects of the school curriculum. Another school of thought holds this to be the fruit rather of experience in school than of training in College. This, they say, should be a time for the study of first principles, the application of which under varying circumstances is to be the life-work of the future teacher. These differences are reflected in the interpretation by different insti-

tutions of the Board of Education Syllabus in the Principles and Practice of Teaching.

The writer of a recent article in *The Times Educational Supplement* suggests that the existing classification of professional subjects in the Board of Education syllabus is misleading, and urges that students should be trained to regard Education as an applied science based on Elementary Psychology and Elementary Biology, the latter including a certain amount of Human Physiology. Psychology, he claims, has advanced so far in the past ten years as to furnish a reliable foundation for educational theory and practice.[1]

It is in this direction that the training of teachers is slowly moving. From the beginning courses provided by University Training Departments for Secondary Teachers have included the study of Psychology and the History of Education, and in the training of teachers of the young the importance of Physiology is being more and more emphasized. Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers are in a transition stage, a fact which will account for the diametrically opposite criticisms to which we have already referred. In spite of a long tradition of training in 'Method', mainly on empirical lines, the best of them have, in recent years, been steadily striving to develop a more scientific type of training, based on the study of Psychology and developed as far as possible experimentally—in short, to equip their students with a knowledge of the theory as well as the practice of Education. That the effort is commendable most people will agree, but that the conditions essential to success are present in the Training College is open to question. The work demands lecturers of high qualifications and long and varied experience, as well as students with mature and trained minds and leisure for sustained thought. Where these conditions are not present the result is too often merely 'potted psychology', and the assurance begotten of little knowledge, rather than that willingness to learn from experience which should be one of the fruits of a professional course.

One other criticism remains. Practically all Training Colleges are following the lines indicated by the Board of Education in their Regulations and are endeavouring to train at least two types of teachers—specialists destined for schools for older

[1] *Times Educational Supplement*, 5 November 1921, p. 489.

children, and 'all-round teachers', destined for Elementary Schools as we know them to-day. In Women's Colleges there is often in addition a special Course for Infant Teachers. Apart from the desirability or otherwise of continuing existing lines of demarcation between the various parts of our school system, we may seriously question the advisability of attempting several types of training in one institution, and with the same staff, and sympathize with suggestions often made for dealing with the 'all-round teacher' as a separate problem. Specialization of Training Colleges in giving those types of training for which they are suitably placed and staffed is a suggestion well worthy of consideration and one to which we shall have occasion to refer again.

Examination of Students. It remains to consider briefly the arrangements for the examination of students in Training Colleges. Terminal examinations are usually conducted by the College staff with a view to determining progress, and at the end of two years comes the final examination on which the award of Certificates is based. In general, as distinct from professional subjects, this is, for most Colleges, an external examination conducted by members of the inspectorial staff of the Board of Education. The examiners are specialists in their subjects, and the nature of the papers set not infrequently determines the general character of the instruction, particularly as these inspectors from time to time visit the Colleges to confer with the member or members of the staff responsible for the instruction in their particular subjects.

The staff of every College participates in the final examination in professional subjects, and enjoys the privilege of being consulted in doubtful cases. In connexion with the former, lecturers are required to keep a record of marks and attendance during the period of training, and towards the end of the course to draw up and submit to the Board lists of students arranged in five groups according to their proficiency. The Board of Education's Inspectors visit the College and award marks for each subject after considering the lists and imposing such tests as they may think necessary.[1] Opinions vary as to the effectiveness of this so-called group-method of testing teaching

[1] So also for Elementary Science.

ability, but the balance of opinion is decidedly in its favour. Its value obviously must depend on the care and thoroughness with which the training and grading is carried out by College staffs. The older method of a set criticism lesson before the Inspector had many defects, not the least being the unnatural conditions under which both the student and his pupils were placed.

In drawing up the list of successful candidates the Board of Education first adopt a provisional pass mark, deferring a number of doubtful cases until the College Authorities have been consulted. For example, in 1920–1 the number so deferred for consideration was 587, and of these 240 were allowed to pass in view of the recommendations of the College Authorities.[1] The list is finally published for each College in alphabetical order, and shows the subjects in which the students have passed with credit or with distinction.

A few Colleges conduct their own final examination in all subjects. In this case the part played by the Board's Inspectors throughout is that of assessors, a function which one of them also performs in connexion with the system of examination established in 1919 by Liverpool University, and applicable to the Colleges of Edge Hill and Warrington (for women) and Chester (for men). Here the examination is under the control of a Committee of the Senate of the University which appoints external and internal examiners, the external examiners from teachers in the University, and the internal examiners from teachers in the Training College. Syllabuses of work, examination papers, and the results of the final examination have to be approved by the Training College Committee of the Senate and by the Board of Education, the latter being represented throughout by an assessor.

Earlier in this chapter we suggested that standards of instruction and of work in many Training Colleges were largely determined by the standard of certification adopted by the Board of Education. Unfortunately the latter is not easily ascertained, for Training College Authorities are only informed whether a student has passed or failed in either the academic or the professional part of the examination. Comparison with other examinations is deprecated, though the attainments of students at the end of their course are sometimes described by those most

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1920–1, p. 55.

familiar with them as varying from ability to pass a University matriculation examination to the standard of an intermediate examination in particular subjects. The higher standard presumably is reached by those students who obtain distinction in an advanced course, but these in 1919–20, in English for example, formed only 2 per cent. of the entrants in that subject.[1] 'Distinctions' in other advanced courses in the same year were also few, and in no subject was the proportion of students who achieved other than a mere pass more than 33 per cent.[2] It is probable, therefore, that the majority barely attain the lower of the two standards referred to above.

Whether this is to be regarded as sufficient for certification is of course another question, and a matter of opinion. Thus the President of the National Federation of Class Teachers, speaking at Liverpool in September 1921, urged that the Board should be pressed to raise the standard of its examinations, and other critics point out (while admitting that the evidence should be used with caution) that the number of failures in a given year is low, and that even of the successful students some fail to reach the pass mark provisionally adopted by the Board and are granted certificates after consultation with the College.[3]

The argument from failures is one which arouses much protest. It is urged that, as the final examination is largely internal, and the Training Colleges are dealing with picked students, a higher proportion of failures is not to be expected. Theoretically no doubt this should be the case, and that the students, under favourable conditions of supply, are selected from among a larger number is, of course, obvious; to infer, however, that Training Colleges are thereby provided with an intellectual *élite* would, in the light of evidence adduced earlier in this chapter, be a mistake. The final examination comes at the end of a long period with no provision for weeding out the unfit; for this reason and because the standard for the granting of the Certificate, as distinct from the conducting of the final

[1] Training College witnesses (before the English Committee) declared that not more than one-third of the students who pass out of College are competent to teach English to a class—yet English is an essential subject in the examination and accounts for most of the advanced course students.

[2] *B. of E. Statistics*, 1919–20, p. 170.

[3] Percentage of failures 1911 to 1921: 2·3, 2·7, 3·3, 3·9, 3·3, 3·3, 4·4, 5·3, 4·7, 5·9, 8·2. (*B. of E. Annual Reports.*)

examination, is determined by an external authority the argument from failures is not wholly inapplicable.

Again, it is sometimes suggested that to raise the standard of education for teachers may have the effect of emphasizing unduly the intellectual side of their preparation and lead to the neglect of other and more important characteristics. While we deny that higher standards necessarily and inevitably produce this over-emphasis, we may nevertheless admit the danger : capacity for teaching, moral fibre, and idealism are among the supreme needs of the young teacher in all ages, and now as always we should endeavour to entrust his preparation to men and women of vision and experience. That there are such among the trainers of teachers to-day is as certain as is the fact that we need many more. But that present conditions render their task peculiarly difficult is not always realized. Led by relatively easy channels to his Training College course, often aware that the treatment of a subject is strictly limited in scope because he is to teach in an Elementary School, and knowing full well that not more than one or two students in his College will fail to secure that hall-mark of the Elementary Teacher, the Board of Education Certificate, the Training College student of to-day lacks the stimulus to effort and the discipline which his predecessor found in the arduous years of apprenticeship and the semi-Spartan conditions of College life. To those earlier conditions it is neither desirable nor necessary to return, but we are convinced that the failure of the system to call forth the best efforts of those who come under it is its most serious condemnation. So long as present arrangements continue a higher standard should be adopted for the certification of students in Training Colleges ; with a reorganization of the system the nature of the problem changes—the unfit can be eliminated, for example, at an earlier stage. But whatever reforms we may ultimately find to be advisable it is certain that no system can be regarded as satisfactory which does not maintain standards sufficiently high to elicit the best efforts of those who are preparing to enter the profession, and to command the respect and confidence of the community.

V

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS (*continued*)

Two-Year Students in University Training Departments. The formal connexion of Two-Year Students with Universities dates from the establishment of the first Day Training Colleges in 1890, and at some period in their history all Universities and University Colleges have made provision for them. This, however, is not the case to-day: the Two-Year Student, properly so called, is only to be found in the Universities of Birmingham and Bristol, and the University Colleges of Nottingham, Southampton, Reading, and Exeter.[1] London University makes special provision for Two-Year Students in a separate institution (Goldsmiths' College), to which we shall refer in this chapter. The other Universities now admit to their Training Departments none but students intending to follow a Three- or Four-Year Course, and though, since 1919, the former have technically been Two-Year Students to whom permission is granted for a third year of study, they do not belong to the group which we are now considering. Nor does the student who fails to make due progress towards a degree and is obliged to complete his training at the end of the second year. A few of these will doubtless always be found in every Training Department.

The regulations which govern the instruction of Two-Year Students have already been summarized and need not be recapitulated. It will be sufficient to note the differences which are found in carrying them into effect in the institutions with which we are here concerned. The first of these is the higher standard usually required of candidates upon entrance. Bristol University, for example, in 1921 required all students to have passed its own Matriculation Examination or an accepted

[1] The Board of Education classify the Training Departments of Southampton, Nottingham, and Exeter for administrative purposes as Two-Year Colleges. For our purpose, however, it is better to regard all University Colleges as potential Universities, and to deal with the position of the Two-Year Student in them as a distinct problem.

equivalent, with the result that the number of students eligible for entrance was reduced by one-half. The other centres give a decided preference to candidates who have already passed an examination of matriculation standard, and, but for the fact that there is an understanding between the University or University College and one or more neighbouring Education Authorities that the Department will receive students qualified under the Board of Education regulations, the requirement would doubtless be made absolute. The reason is not far to seek, for it is obviously desirable that as many students as possible should be fitted by previous education to follow the ordinary course of the University.

This brings us to the second of the differences which we have to notice. In the preceding chapter we mentioned that the Board of Education are prepared to sanction courses of study alternative to their own, and, so far at least as general subjects are concerned, students in a Training Department follow the ordinary courses of the University wherever this can be arranged. Thus at Bristol the ordinary course in English for Two-Year Students is the literary half of the Intermediate Course for the B.A. degree, and at Reading the courses in general subjects are those prescribed for the College Diploma of Associate in Arts. But the extent to which this can be arranged is limited, and it is more usual to find special courses mapped out by the University staff for the Two-Year Student. These, as well as the courses in professional subjects, follow the general lines of the Board of Education syllabuses : a few of them show interesting variations, one at least of which may be mentioned because it bears upon a question to which we have already referred. Included in the syllabus for each year at Goldsmiths' College is a short course dealing with Social Science from an educational point of view. In the first year the student is introduced to the social problems of the immediate neighbourhood and is afforded opportunities for personal work ; in the second year he is shown how to apply the knowledge he has gained to studying the special problems of any locality, whether town or country.

As with the courses of study, so with the instruction—whenever possible this takes place with other students, and is given by the University Professors and their staffs. But again the extent to which joint instruction is possible is limited, sometimes

by the number of students, more often by the varied character of their attainments and the relatively narrower range and lower standard of their syllabuses. For these reasons Two-Year Students are usually dealt with as a separate group, though they may still be taught by the staff of the University in non-professional subjects. It is difficult to generalize. Thus at the University Colleges practically all the teaching in general subjects is undertaken by the staffs of other Departments, and the Training Department is concerned mainly with professional instruction and practical training in teaching. At Bristol, too, all general subjects are taught by the University Professors and their staffs, while at Birmingham the Two-Year Students (all women) have an almost entirely separate staff, but hear lectures from the Professors of English, History, and Geography. Goldsmiths' College, being a separate institution, is self-contained in the matter of staff, several of the lecturers being recognized teachers of London University.

Arrangements for the final examination of Two-Year Students in these centres vary considerably. At Exeter, Southampton, and Nottingham they are much the same as in ordinary Training Colleges. Reading and Goldsmiths' College have schemes approved by the Board of Education, under which the services of external examiners from other Universities are enlisted, while at Bristol and Birmingham the final examination is conducted by the staffs of the various University Departments with a representative of the Board of Education as assessor. Upon the result of this examination the Board issue their Certificate, and we are provided with an interesting commentary upon the standard of attainment which they require when we find that at Birmingham, for example, it is deemed advisable to provide an additional incentive to students by issuing also a special 'University Elementary Teachers' Certificate' to those who reach a high standard in the examination.

Many of the Two-Year Students in University Training Departments are from the immediate locality. Those who come from a distance must comply with the same regulations as to residence as students in attendance at other non-residential Training Colleges—men may reside in approved lodgings, women must reside with relatives or in hostels. Where hostels are provided one (or more) is often reserved for 'Education'

students, as it is easier in this way to make the hostels self-supporting with the aid of government grants. In connexion with Goldsmiths' College hostels are maintained by several Local Education Authorities for students from their respective areas.

We are now in a position to attempt an estimate of the relative advantages and disadvantages of a Two-Year Course at a University centre as compared with a Training College. At first sight it would appear as though the balance were wholly in favour of those who follow the former. That they enjoy certain advantages is undeniable—among these we naturally place contact with University life and teaching, syllabuses more varied in scope and liberal in interpretation, and examinations conducted by a University staff. But these advantages may easily be over-estimated. Even in the best-organized Universities much of the work of Two-Year Students is separate from that of students reading for degrees; while their inferior attainments and more limited syllabuses, together with the low standard required for the Board of Education Certificate, tend to diminish the advantage to them of such University teaching as they enjoy.

Again, the participation of Two-Year Students in University life can be but slight. Lack of time, differences of routine (many afternoons, for example, being devoted to professional training), segregation in special hostels, all contribute to make of them a class apart, while the relatively high proportion of day students is unfavourable to the development of a strong corporate spirit. A student who recently passed from a residential Training College to a University Training Department for a Third-Year Course thus sums up her impressions of the latter, and incidentally compares the life at the two institutions:

'The splendid corporate spirit we had at X—— is lacking here. . . . Training College students take very little part in the general University life. . . . Less "swotting" and more attendance at the different meetings—literary and debating societies, and the many excellent lectures in connexion with the University would be better, I think. The Training College or "Education" students and degree students do not mix well. . . . There is a tendency on the part of the degree students to look down on the Training College students, often almost unconsciously.'

It is significant that where University Professors or Lecturers

in Education have had experience in the training of Two-Year Students in Training Colleges as well as in their own Training Departments they are emphatic in affirming the superiority of the former *for this particular type of student.* They, too, refer to the corporate life in a Training College as more vigorous than that which a Two-Year Student at a University can possibly enjoy, and as affording greater opportunity for training in leadership. From the standpoint of general education one Professor puts the case thus : ' So long as students are admitted for training before their general education has been carried to matriculation standard and they are capable of University work, special arrangements should be made for them.' Others add : ' So long as the combined Two-Year Course of general study and professional training is retained it can best be given in a separate institution.' That this does not necessarily mean exclusion from University influence the example of Goldsmiths' College proves. Whether the Two-Year Course should be retained and whether this is the type of institution which should provide it in the future are questions of which the detailed examination must be deferred.

Among the arguments put forward by those advocates of University Day Training Colleges who gave evidence before the Cross Commission was the existence of a similar arrangement in Scotland. To-day the experience of that country is often cited as providing further illustration of the anomalous position of the class of student we have just been discussing. An examination of the Scottish system from this point of view will therefore be instructive.

Stow's pioneer work at Glasgow was followed by the establishment of a number of denominational Training Colleges,[1] but subsequent developments have resulted in a complete modification of this system. Four dates stand out as specially noteworthy. In 1873 the Education Department agreed to grant the Elementary Teachers' Certificate to University students who had received a certain amount of professional training, and at the same time gave permission to qualified students in denominational Training Colleges to attend one or more University classes

[1] Stow planned a National Undenominational College, but the Privy Council would only make grants-in-aid on condition that both site and buildings were transferred to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland.

during the winter session. In 1895 a new class of students was instituted, known as King's Students: these were to attend University classes for instruction in general subjects, and to undergo a course of professional training under the supervision of local committees.[1] Ten years later (1905) this arrangement was extended. Representative Provincial Committees were established at each University Centre and provision was made for the transfer of existing Training Colleges, six of which were shortly afterwards handed over.[2] Finally, in 1919, a National Committee for the training of teachers was added.[3] To this the remaining denominational Training Colleges, three in number, as well as a specially equipped College for the training of Teachers of Physical Science at Dunfermline, have been transferred, and Scotland may now claim to possess a national system of teacher training, of which the most characteristic feature is the concentrating of all training at University Centres.

Students in training may be variously classified, but for our purpose may be divided into three groups—the graduate, the graduating, and the non-graduating. The first group includes those students who are following a one-year post-graduate course of professional training, to the second group belong those who are taking a four-year concurrent course of general study and professional training with the intention of obtaining a degree in addition to a Teacher's Certificate, while the last group comprises Two-Year Students, the majority of whom do not attend a University class, and none of whom intend to graduate. Some of the students in the first two groups obtain special qualifications for teaching particular subjects in Secondary and

[1] A short sketch of the early history of training in Scotland is given in the *Report of the Education Department for* 1905–6, pp. 597 et seq. See also Kerr, op. cit., ch. xxiv.

[2] Minute of 30 January 1905. The constitution of the four Provincial Committees (Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and St. Andrews) was revised by a Minute of November 1919. They now include representatives of Local Education Authorities in the 'Province', of the University, of specified educational institutions, and of teachers in the area, together with representatives of the Church of Scotland and the United Free Church.

[3] Minutes of 20 November 1919 and 16 February 1920. The National Committee consists solely of representatives of Education Authorities. It delegates the management of the Training Centres to the Provincial Committees, but acts through its Executive in a centralizing and co-ordinating capacity. See also ch. x, pp. 250–1.

Intermediate Schools; the Two-Year Students pass into Elementary Schools. To the last group two-thirds of the total number of students in training belong. A certain proportion of them (all women) reside and receive part of their instruction at the three remaining Training Colleges, which, though transferred to the National Committee, have not disappeared as separate institutions like the others; the majority are in attendance at the Training Centres.[1] It is to these that we shall here confine our attention, and it will help us in our comparison with England if we deal mainly with those aspects of the training course which we have discussed in the earlier pages of this chapter.

The development of the Training Centre as distinct from the Training College system has throughout been based on the assumption that of the two parts which make up a course of training the more strictly professional should be entrusted to the Provincial Committee, while instruction in general subjects should be provided by arrangement with the University. For graduating students this is actually the case, for the non-graduating student this principle has been carried out in two ways, but at present only to a limited extent. Either the students may attend a University class if qualified to do so,[2] or they may be instructed as a separate group by members of the University staff. In 1918–19, out of approximately 1,600 Two-Year Students, only 108, mainly from the Edinburgh Centre, attended a University class.[3] The number of these will doubtless increase.

The extent to which the alternative method of enlisting the aid of the University staff is employed is also limited. Instruction by University lecturers takes place at Aberdeen in English, Psychology, and Education, at Dundee and Glasgow in Science only, while at Edinburgh there is no provision of the kind.[4] In effect this means that the greater part of the instruction of Two-Year Students is given by the separate staffs of the Training Centres,

[1] In 1920 out of 980 students receiving Certificates for teaching in Elementary Schools, 759 had been two-year students, 28 three-year, 78 four-year, and 115 one-year (111 post-graduate and 4 acting teachers). Of the 759 two-year students, 641 (including 31 men) were in attendance at the Training Centres and 118 (all women) at Training Colleges. *Education Department* (*Scotland*), *Training of Teachers Report*, 1919–20, Table 4.

[2] Principally Art. 15 (*b*) Students. See ch. iii, p. 66.

[3] *Report of the Education Department* (*Scotland*), 1918–19, p. 28.

[4] Ibid., p. 29. Information about Aberdeen supplied by the Director of Studies.

or in the case of the recently transferred Colleges, by the staffs of the Colleges.

When we turn from the arrangements for instruction to the question of standards we find it difficult to institute a comparison between the two countries on the same basis, and must content ourselves with stating the facts. For the standard of instruction by other than University teachers a recent Departmental Report must be our authority : [1] ' As a general rule the instruction given by whole-time officers of the Training Centre does not rise much above the level of good Secondary School work ', though in justice we must add that ' to this there are some distinguished exceptions '. Of the standard required for a successful completion of the course the evidence is less direct. There is no final external examination for a Certificate as in England, but the testing of students during and at the end of the course is in the hands of their instructors, who through the Principal of the Centre submit lists to the assessor of the Education Department. Upon these lists the award of Certificates is based. There is much to commend an arrangement of this kind whereby the whole of a student's work is taken into consideration, use is made of the teacher's knowledge of his pupils, and the strain of a final examination is removed, and shortly after its introduction in 1906 inspectors were unanimous in declaring that the efficiency of the Centres had increased. Nevertheless when we find that in recent years the proportion of students who have been refused a Certificate by the Education Department at the end of their training has been negligible,[2] we are inclined to suspect that whatever standards the Training Centres may endeavour to maintain they are in much the same plight as our own Universities and University Colleges where Two-Year Students are concerned. The greater number of these students at the Scottish Centres have entered by means of the Junior Student Certificate, and it is difficult to believe that a system of preliminary education which is so frequently condemned should be successful in

[1] *Report of the Education Department* (*Scotland*), 1918–19, p. 29.

[2] The figures are striking. The numbers of students refused a Certificate in the six years 1915 to 1920 were as follows : 2, 1, 0, 0, 1, 3. The total numbers (of all students) completing a course in the same years were 1,236, 1,195, 1,098, 977, 914, 983. *Reports of the Education Department* (*Scotland*), 1918–19, Tables 4 and 4 A, and 1919–20, Table 4.

eliminating the intellectually unfit and the incompetent. Rather we may infer that the main consideration is the quantity rather than the quality of the teachers forthcoming for the schools.

Finally we look for evidence that the Two-Year Student has in the past been able to participate in University life. From this he is largely debarred by the fact that he is not usually a member of the University, and students in training prior to 1920 emphasize the difficulties due to the absence of adequate and central accommodation for instruction or recreation. Reports of the Education Department refer also to the need of a 'home' for students in training and to the absence of that corporate life 'to foster which in the Training Centre is a harder task than it was in the small Training Colleges'.[1] But the most conclusive evidence that the system has hitherto failed to foster that life is to be found in the events of the last few years. Four Training Centres of the most modern construction have been erected capable of accommodating 3,000 students and replete with every convenience, gymnasia, baths, dining and assembly halls, changing rooms, common rooms, libraries, and reading rooms, rooms for lectures, for Science, Art, and Handicraft—these in themselves are a confession that after years of experience Scottish educationists have come to the conclusion that, for the corporate life as well as for the professional instruction of the student in training, and of the Two-Year Student in particular, separate provision must be made.

With the provision of adequate central accommodation is proceeding also an increase in the number of hostels.[2] Here the Edinburgh Association for the provision of hostels for women students has set an excellent example. Seven hostels were planned, of which three have been completed. The capital for these was contributed in the proportion of five-sevenths by the Scottish Education Department and the remainder by the University, the accommodation being assigned to intending teachers and University students in the like proportion. In spite of prophecies as to failure the hostels have succeeded in achieving the object for which they were established, and are helping to break down the isolation in which intending teachers

[1] *Report of the Education Department (Scotland)*, 1919–20, pp. 19–20.
[2] For details see recent Reports of the Department.

had previously lived. Of the intending teachers in residence during the session 1921–2, sixty were Two-Year Students at the Edinburgh Training Centre.

With these more recent developments, which we may regard as the firstfruits of the labours of the National Committee, the training of teachers in Scotland has entered upon a new phase in which there is the promise of a more complete application of the principle which more than any other has governed successive modifications of the system—the principle that the training of teachers is the work of the Universities. Although, therefore, we may agree that, hitherto, the institution of the Training Centre has not solved the problem of the Two-Year Student, there is reason to believe that the future will see a more successful solution and a more effective participation of Scottish Universities in the training of all grades of teacher.[1]

Third-Year Students. Students specially recommended by the Training College Authorities and approved by the Board may spend a third year in further study and training. This may either be continuous with the original period, or may be taken after an interval of service in the schools, not as a rule exceeding four years. This additional year may be spent either at the Training College or at some other approved institution, and must in all cases include an Advanced Course in the Principles of Teaching, and provide for extended teaching practice and visits to selected schools for observing special points of organization and of method. Apart from this a considerable amount of selection is possible. The student may, for example, if he has already made some progress towards a degree, prepare in the third year for his final examination, and, if the Regulations of the University permit, may take Education as one of the subjects for the examination in lieu of the Advanced Course in the Principles of Teaching. Degree Students, however, may only transfer to another institution under exceptional circumstances, and must spend at least a fortnight in class teaching in a Public Elementary School.[2]

[1] For an interesting treatment of this and kindred questions see *Problems of National Education*, ed. Clarke. Essay by James Malloch on 'Teaching as a Profession'. Mr. Malloch is now Executive Officer of the new National Committee.

[2] *Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 52 (*f*).

Under certain conditions, e. g. proficiency as a teacher and knowledge of the language, the period of further training may be spent in a Training College or some other institution in a foreign country.[1]

When the third year follows directly after the period of training it is essential that the student should have completed this satisfactorily, and that he should be recommended by the College as likely to benefit by the extension.[2] If, however, the third year's training is to be taken after an interval, the recommendation must come from the Local Education Authority in whose employment he is, and be endorsed by an Inspector of the Board of Education. In all cases the Board require the student to satisfy an approved test before regarding the additional period of training as satisfactorily completed. This is normally arranged for by the College Authorities. The total number of Third-Year Students in all Colleges in 1921–2 was only 295,[3] and there are not in a given year more than a few such students in any one College. In some Colleges this means that they have to fit into the time-table for the Second-Year Students as best they can, attending such lectures as may be of use to them. Other Colleges devote considerable attention to Third-Year Students, arranging for the special study of a subject or subjects on much more liberal lines than those followed during the preceding period, and obtaining the approval of the Board of Education to an arrangement whereby students submit essays on some aspects of their subjects in lieu of the whole or part of a formal examination. Prior to the war one College at least aimed definitely at securing a steady flow of students returning after an interval for further study, to the very great benefit both of themselves and of their juniors.

One-Year Students. The majority of One-Year Students are holders of the Elementary Teachers' Certificate who wish to supplement their qualification by the addition of a year of training. The courses followed by them in College differ but slightly from those prescribed for the Two-Year Student. The number of general subjects (Group A) may be reduced to two, or even to one, if that one be studied to an advanced stage, and

[1] Ibid., Appendix D (II).

[2] Ibid.

[3] See Table, ch. iv, p. 72.

only one of the semi-professional subjects from Group B need be included.[1] Only three weeks' practical training in schools is required, and even this may be dispensed with under exceptional circumstances. The other type of One-Year Student, holding a degree or some other educational qualification of an advanced character, only enters the Elementary Training College in comparatively small numbers. These, as a rule, devote the whole of their time to professional training, spending at least twelve weeks in class teaching in Elementary Schools. The degree of attention bestowed upon One-Year Students, as upon Third-Year Students, varies in different Colleges, according to the adequacy of the staff and the numbers to be dealt with. The total number in all Colleges in 1921–2 was 134.[2]

Three- and Four-Year Students. Three- and Four-Year Courses for Elementary Teachers are a natural development of the movement towards a full University training. Arising first in connexion with the University Day Training Colleges established after 1890, the movement in favour of Degree Courses spread to students in Residential Training Colleges. The type of course most favoured extended over three years, academic studies and professional training being pursued concurrently throughout the whole period. Under such circumstances there was a tendency to neglect the professional side of the work, and where this was not done the result was not infrequently overstrain on the part of the student. A certain amount of economy was effected in some University Training Departments by students being allowed to study Education as one of the subjects for a degree. For these reasons the Board first required evidence of physical and intellectual fitness and finally omitted the Course from their regulations, with the result that the number of Three-Year Students is steadily declining. In 1913 the number completing Three-Year Courses was 490,[3] whereas in 1921 there were only 107.[4] To-day the Three-Year Student, as such, has disappeared, but by obtaining permission to remain for a third year, a number of Two-Year Students achieve the same object.

The student who elects to follow a Four-Year Course enters either a University Training Department, or a Training College

[1] Ch. iv, p. 84.
[2] See Table, ch. iv, p. 72.
[3] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, p. 164.
[4] Ch. iv, p. 72.

which is closely connected with a University.[1] The first three years are spent in studying for a degree, and the fourth in professional training. Before admission he must possess qualifications which entitle him to matriculate at the University at which he proposes to graduate, and must also adduce the usual evidence of physical fitness. By the end of the first year he must be able to show that he has made due progress, marked, as a rule, by means of success in some Intermediate Examination. Failing such success he must complete his training as a Two-Year Student, devoting the greater part of the second year to professional training. His general studies for the first three years naturally follow the lines prescribed by the syllabuses of the particular examinations for which he is preparing. Four-Year Students in Residential Colleges usually follow courses for Arts degrees, and for this purpose sometimes receive instruction in the early stages from the more highly qualified members of the College staff. As the numbers are small, they have the great advantage of working in small groups and receiving much more individual attention than their fellows. While preparing for their final examination, and often in the earlier stages also, they attend the lectures of the University staff.

The Four-Year Student in a University Training Department is, for the first three years, in no way different from other students following courses for degrees, except that the Training Department usually arranges for some portion of the practical work in teaching to be done during vacation, and some little time may be devoted during this period to a study of Music, Art, and Physical Exercises. Intellectually he enjoys advantages not open to the student in the ordinary Training College. He is able to come in contact with men of eminence in their respective subjects, and with students (men and women) preparing for other professions. Furthermore, the conditions under which he works throw him very much more on his own resources, and he is freed from the atmosphere of school which still prevails in so many Training Colleges. These are all distinct gains. That there are disadvantages it would be foolish to deny—the local character of the Training Departments of the younger Universities, and to a certain extent of the other Departments

[1] See ch. xiv, pp. 361 et seq, for fuller details about these Colleges.

too, the absence of adequate hostel accommodation for students who are unable to live at home, the inadequacy of most University staffs with the resulting lack of individual guidance, the less vigorous social and corporate life of a larger and more heterogeneous body of students—these are defects which fortunately are realized, and which will, it is hoped, be remedied as speedily as possible.

The course in professional training for Four-Year Students in Residential Training Colleges corresponds very closely to that provided for the Two-Year Student, with the difference that practically the whole of it falls within the one year and so gains in effectiveness. At the conclusion of the four years the Board determine which of the students are qualified for recognition as Certificated Teachers, basing this decision on the result of the Final Degree Examination, and on the report of the student's professional work made by the College. Normally a pass is required in the Final Examination for a Degree, but in case of failure the Board may either issue a Certificate on the recommendation of the College Authorities, or grant temporary recognition for two years and six months pending the passing of such further examination or test as may be required.

The fourth year of the student who enters the Elementary Training Department of a University is also devoted entirely to professional study and training. As a general rule, the course which he follows is similar to that for a University Diploma in Education, and in most University Training Departments Elementary and Secondary Teachers receive some instruction in Educational Theory in common. If at the end of his degree course he desires to prepare for service in an Elementary School, his practical experience will be gained in much the same way as that of a student from a Training College, though with rather less supervision from the staff of his Department. If he has been successful in obtaining an Honours Degree, he may at the end of the third year elect to follow a course of training in preparation for work in a Secondary School.[1]

Certain obvious conclusions stand out from our examination

[1] As a matter of fact, the majority of students who obtain a Pass Degree also take posts in Secondary Schools, even though during the professional part of their course they have been trained as Elementary Teachers. See figures on p. 122, Table 2.

of the arrangements for the professional training of Elementary Teachers. Of these perhaps the most evident is that higher standards of admission, instruction, and attainment are needed for the Two-Year Student. A higher standard for admission would ensure that the energies of training staffs were not so much absorbed in 'supplementing' the general education of students,[1] while higher standards of instruction and of certification would improve the quality of the ultimate product, to the great gain of the schools. The remedies for these defects are equally obvious and have already been indicated. The standard for admission should be equivalent to that of a University Matriculation Examination, the instruction of all students should be carried out by well qualified staffs working in close touch with Universities, and the certifying of the intellectual attainments of students and their competence as teachers should not remain so much in the hands of the Central Authority as it is to-day. To the last two points we shall hope to return.

From these defects the course of education and training provided for the Four-Year Student is free, and, as the general conditions of student life and instruction in Universities improve, such disadvantages as he now experiences will tend to disappear. The Two-Year Student in the Training Department of a University or University College, on the other hand, is in an anomalous position. Under existing arrangements the extent to which he benefits by association with the University is usually but slight, and unless special provision can be made for his needs, as in Scotland, he may be expected to disappear, like the Three-Year Student, thus leaving only the two kinds of course—the one for two years in a Training College, the other for four years in a University or institution closely associated therewith.

A second conclusion, closely connected with the first, is that there is need for a more careful determination of the purpose of a training course. Concurrent courses have serious disadvantages, and though it is impossible (even if it were desirable) to eliminate entirely all further study of general subjects, this should be wholly subordinate to the main purpose of a training course—the preparation of the student for the teaching of those subjects of which his knowledge has already reached a reasonably

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1904–5, p. 40.

high level. The dual character of the Two-Year Course is often justified on the ground that it is a great gain to study a subject from the point of view of the child, and that by this means the intending teacher is prevented from becoming a mere scholar, out of touch with the realities of the school. To review knowledge from the point of view of the pupil is a condition of all successful teaching, and should play an important part in every training course, but to use this as an argument in favour of the retention of the present concurrent course is to overlook the immaturity and the low standard of education of the student, both of which combine to bring it about that training for him means limitation, and that he regards knowing how to teach as of equal if not of greater importance than knowing what to teach, an error which daily life in school will do little to rectify.

A point arises here to which we have not as yet referred. For the Two-Year Student the course of study includes few subjects that do not figure in the curriculum of the schools, but of recent years more specialization has been encouraged, and within the limits of the prescribed curriculum the advanced study of one or more subjects is possible. Unfortunately specialization on the part of intending teachers has not been accompanied by specialization in the schools, with the result that a young teacher is not infrequently employed in teaching all subjects to a lower class when he might much more profitably be engaged for a great part of his time in teaching one, or possibly two subjects, throughout the upper part of the school. This is a serious anomaly, and is regarded by the staffs of Training Colleges as a fundamental defect in the system. Head Teachers of Elementary Schools, trained under earlier systems and wedded to the idea of the class teacher responsible for all subjects, often find the reorganization which increasing specialization involves too difficult or too troublesome. They have long been accustomed, moreover, to await the official nod which in this case is not always forthcoming. Doubtless small rural schools present a very real difficulty, but more might be done even in these to utilize the ability of the staff to the best advantage. Certainly there seems to be little excuse for a continuance of the anomaly in the larger urban or semi-urban schools.[1]

[1] In this connexion see also pp. 280–1.

The lack of adjustment between the needs of the school and the preparation of the teacher is but one illustration of the isolation in which hitherto most Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers have remained. At the outset they were closely connected in every way with Elementary Schools. From these schools students came, after a period of apprenticeship, for a Two-Year Course of so-called professional training, given by a staff mainly composed of ex-Elementary Teachers ; into them they returned at the end of their course, a closed, and, as is now generally admitted, a vicious circle. Various attempts have been made to break the circle, and in Secondary Schools and University Day Training Colleges Elementary Teachers have been brought under other influences, though for some of them the circle still remains unbroken. A further attempt to render the system more elastic was made when, by a modification of the regulations, it became possible for a teacher, after training, to take up service in any State-aided school. Theoretically, therefore, training institutions may prepare all types of teachers, in practice the majority of students from Training Colleges continue to pass into Elementary Schools ; at Univerity centres only are teachers for Elementary and Secondary Schools trained in the same institution and to a greater (or less) degree in common.

But though Training Colleges are still the main source of supply for qualified teachers of Elementary Schools, they now draw a large proportion both of staff and students from Secondary Schools. Unloosed from their close connexion with the one, they have not established any vital connexion with the other, and remain institutions apart, to their great disadvantage and the great detriment of the service which they can render to the community. A glance at arrangements for the inspection of Training Colleges provides a curious commentary upon this isolation. During the period of preliminary education in Secondary Schools the intending teacher is under the supervision of the Secondary Inspectors of the district in which the school is situated ; while in the Training College his education and training are the concern of Inspectors of the Elementary Branch. Neither party is concerned with securing continuity or with reviewing the education of the teacher as a whole.

Various suggestions have been made for removing the anomaly. There are those who think that the closed circle of earlier days had its advantages and advocate a return to it. Others regard the Training College as a place of secondary education for a particular class, and would link it up with the Secondary School in every possible way, while still a third group would make the education and training of teachers the task of the University. The problem becomes simpler at once when we separate the period of general education from the subsequent period of professional training. During the former the intending teacher should in no way be differentiated from young people preparing for other walks in life ; his special preparation during the later period is essentially the task of the training institution.

Thus the position of the Training College would become clear. Its connexion would be on the one hand with the schools which it professes to serve, and on the other hand with the University which helps it to maintain its standards. The Training College would be the extension movement of the Education Department of the University, looking to it for guidance and standards in all that concerns its more specialized task, and for its staff drawing upon the ablest teachers of experience in the kind of school which students are preparing to enter, as well as upon others who have added to their experience as teachers a special study of the sciences underlying educational theory and practice.[1]

[1] Cf. ch. xiv, pp. 376–7.

VI

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

The professional training of teachers for Secondary Schools has an interest and merits an attention somewhat out of proportion to the extent to which facilities are either provided or used. It is upon this field that the battle of training has been and indeed still is being fought. In one sense its advocates may claim that the battle is won, for few thinking people to-day go so far as to assert that no other equipment is needed by the young teacher than a knowledge of his subject. In another and more real sense the battle is yet to be won, for it is still possible for University graduates without professional training to obtain posts in Secondary Schools as readily as their fellows who have spent an additional year in special preparation.

We saw in the latter portion of our historical sketch that the first systematic provision for the training of Secondary Teachers dates from the last quarter of the nineteenth century, and that the pioneers of the movement had as their immediate object the provision of a supply of teachers for the new girls' schools, which were then arising in different parts of the country. By the date of the Bryce Commission little progress had been made, and an examination of figures for the years since 1908, when the Board of Education first took official cognizance of training institutions for Secondary Teachers, shows how little use has been made of such facilities as have been provided.[1]

	1909–10	*1910–11*	*1911–12*	*1912–13*	*1913–14*	*1914–15*	*1915–16*
Men	35	30	43		8	19	11
Women	139	133	156	178	167	218	203
Total	174	163	199	216	205	237	214

	1916–17	*1917–18*	*1918–19*	*1919–20*	*1920–1*	*1921–2*	*Totals*
Men	2	6	19	43	78	220	582
Women	124	109	125	182	180	265	2,179
Total	126	115	144	225	258	485	2,761

[1] *B. of E. Reports*, 1910 to 1915, and 1920–1, and 1921–2.

The total number of students, therefore, who during the thirteen years prior to 1922 completed a course of training in preparation for work in Secondary Schools was only 2,761, less than half the number who in a single year passed out from the Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers. It is true that the total number of Secondary Schools is much smaller than the number of Elementary, that some of the years included in the above table were war years, and that in 1919–20 we see a return to the pre-war figures, but even so the number is small, and the great majority are women. Throughout the whole period only 582 men completed a course of training in accordance with the regulations of the Board of Education, and even assuming that there would be students in each year not recognized for purposes of grant, the total number would not thereby be greatly increased. The position in the schools in 1913 is shown by figures published by the Board of Education, of which a summary is appended.[1]

PARTICULARS AS TO PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN GRANT-EARNING SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1913

1. Numbers Trained and Untrained

	Trained		*Untrained*		*Totals*	
	Men	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*
Graduates	1,466	1,534	2,257	1,186	3,723	2,720
Non-Graduates	504	915	1,019	1,523	1,523	2,438
	1,970	2,449	3,276	2,709	5,246	5,158

2. Particulars of Training

	Secondary		*Kinder-garten*	*Elementary*		*Total trained*	
	Men	*Women*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*
Graduates	165	851		1,301	683	1,466	1,534
Non-Graduates	15	310	239	489	366	504	915
	180	1,161	239	1,790	1,049	1,970	2,449

From this it is seen that in 1913 only 180 out of 5,246 men teachers in the 1,010 Secondary Schools to which the figures apply had followed a course of professional training specifically for Secondary teaching. The great majority of the trained men teachers in those schools (1,790 out of a total of 1,970) had passed

[1] *Statistics of Public Education*, Part I, 1912–13, Table 38. Corresponding details are not available for later years.

through an institution for Elementary Teachers and had transferred after training, or after a few years' service, into Secondary Schools. Compare with these the figures for women teachers and it becomes evident in which part of the field the battle of training is still to be won. Were figures available for other than grant-earning Secondary Schools there is little doubt that in the boys' schools the number of trained teachers would be negligible.

Training Institutions. From the Board of Education's Report for 1920–1 we learn that there were in that year twenty-two institutions recognized as providing courses of training for Secondary Teachers.[1] Fifteen of these were Departments of Universities or University Institutions: of the remainder five were Training Colleges (all for women) and two were Secondary Schools. Three of the Women's Colleges also prepare teachers for Kindergarten and Junior Schools; but this part of their work will be discussed in the next chapter. Here we are concerned only with courses and students recognized by the Board of Education in accordance with their regulations.

The earliest regulations of the Board of Education for the training of Secondary Teachers appeared in 1908, in which year grants were first made for this purpose.[2] Since that date the grants have several times been increased, and the regulations amplified, and to-day there are very few students who are not following an approved course, and few institutions other than the Training Colleges maintained by the Roman Catholic body which do not depend to a considerable extent on the grants which they receive from the Board. It will be well, therefore, to summarize the regulations briefly.[3]

Two types of training are recognized, that given in a special institution which may be either a University Training Department or a Secondary Training College, and that given in a Secondary School. In either case the student must possess a degree or some approved equivalent, those who have obtained an Honours Degree and are prepared to sign a declaration of their intention to teach in an approved school being eligible for maintenance grants from the Central Authority. The course

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1920–1, p. 56. For details, see Appendix B, pp. 419–20.
[2] Ibid., 1908–9, p. 166.
[3] *B. of E. Regns. for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, ch. ix.

must be purely professional, extending over not less than a whole year, and comprising instruction both in the Theory and in the Practice of Education. If the institution is a College or University Department, it must make adequate provision for instruction in theory, but may, if desired, delegate the training in practical teaching to an approved Secondary School. Should the staff prefer to be responsible for the practical side of the training, the Principal and not less than one-half of his colleagues must have had successful experience for a reasonable period as members of the teaching staff of a Secondary School. If, on the other hand, this training is delegated to a Secondary School, the school must be specially approved by the Board as suitable for training in one or more branches of the curriculum.

The second type of training centring upon the school is less common, and is only allowed where the school is on the list of Secondary Schools recognized as efficient by the Board. The Head Teacher or a senior member of the staff must be specially qualified and have the necessary interest and leisure to supervise the training of students, of whom not more than one will be recognized in a small school, nor more than three allowed in any school. Normally under such an arrangement the whole of the instruction and training will be given by the staff of the school, but the Board will agree to the attendance of students part time at the University for instruction in the theoretical part of the course. The largest number of schools approved for training purposes at any time since 1913 (the year in which the arrangement was first agreed to by the Board) appears to have been three, and the largest number of students in training at any one time also three. By July 1918 only six students had been approved under this regulation, all women; three of these had completed their course and had been granted certificates which had been endorsed by the Board.[1]

Life at a Secondary Training Institution presents few features of special significance. Only one of them, that for women at Cambridge, is a collegiate institution in the ordinary sense of the term. Here the students live either in the College or in an adjoining hostel. Those who attend the other Colleges and the

[1] *Report of the Departmental Committee on Salaries for Teachers in Secondary and Technical Schools, &c.*, 1918 (Cmd. 9140), pp. 47–8.

Training Departments of Universities find accommodation either in hostels,[1] in approved lodgings, or at home. Conditions in such cases are much the same as those experienced by other University students following post-graduate courses.

Course of Study. Practically all students, whether in University Training Departments, Training Colleges, or Schools, are prepared for the Diploma Examination of a University.[2] A consideration, therefore, of the ground covered in preparing for two of these examinations will give a fair idea of the range of the course. For this purpose we have selected the syllabus for the Cambridge Teacher's Certificate (the first to be established), and the courses provided in preparation for the Manchester University Diploma in Education.

The examination for the Cambridge Certificate is open to external students and consists of two parts—one theoretical and the other practical. In the theoretical part there are four papers —two on the Principles of Education, one on the History of Education, and the fourth on Educational Practice with reference to the teaching of special subjects. Extracts from the syllabuses in each of these sections are reprinted in the Appendix,[3] and may be compared with the corresponding syllabuses for teachers in Elementary Training Colleges. Reference to them will show that the study of the Principles of Education involves a consideration of Educational Aims and of the bearing of Psychology on Education. In more immediate connexion with the school we have a study of its functions, a consideration of the general principles of methodical instruction, and of the hygiene of school life. In the section on History of Education all students are required to study a special period (in 1922–3 the nineteenth century), and emphasis is to be laid on the relation of educational development to general social and intellectual movements. Those who wish to obtain more than a mere pass must also study the works of selected educational writers (in 1922–3 the writers are John Locke and Thomas Arnold), and here again emphasis is to be laid upon the relation of their thought to the educational history of the time. The fourth paper, on the teaching of

[1] Students in the Oxford and Cambridge Training Departments continue 'in residence' at the University, and often have rooms in College.

[2] Appendix B, p. 419, Column 2 of Table. [3] Appendix B, pp. 422–5.

Special Subjects, includes questions dealing with practically all the main subjects figuring in the curriculum of a Secondary School, and is arranged so that a candidate who has made a special study of one subject can confine his attention to it, and obtain an endorsement of his Certificate as a Specialist Teacher.

The testing of teaching ability is provided for in three ways. If the candidate has been a student in a Training College, a report from the College Staff is required. Failing this, he must have been teaching for a year in an approved Secondary School, in which case a report from the Head Teacher must be presented. Secondly, notes of lessons must be submitted, and, finally, a lesson must be given in the presence of an examiner appointed by the Syndicate.

The Diploma in Education of Manchester University is confined to internal students and the course covers rather a wider field, including, in addition to the subjects of the Cambridge syllabus, a course of five lectures in the Administration of Education, and a course in the Psychology of Adolescence and Experimental Psychology by the University Professor in Psychology. Among the optional courses appears one in Social and Economic History and another in Social Economics, both by University Professors.[1] At the end of the course examination papers are set in the compulsory parts of the syllabus—Principles of Education, Methods of Teaching, Educational Psychology, the Physical Life of School Children and School Hygiene, but a student may under certain conditions obtain permission to prepare an essay or essays in lieu of any one or of all these papers. As in the case of the Cambridge Certificate, the teaching ability of students is estimated from reports on their work during the year and written records kept by them, together with one or more lessons given before the examiners.

The syllabuses for the Diploma Examinations of other Universities cover very much the same ground as one or other of these. In all cases we find provision made for some study of Educational Principles, of the History of Education, and of Method, the latter with reference to the teaching of a particular subject, together with practice in teaching in Secondary Schools. Sixty days' contact with school work is required by the regulations of the

[1] Appendix B, p. 425–7.

Board of Education, of which not less than two-thirds must be spent in Secondary Schools. To a varying extent provision is made for a study of Physiology and School Hygiene, and for the study of Educational Systems and Administration. A synopsis of the requirements for each Diploma is attempted in the Appendix.[1]

Among the features of special interest are the absence of a final examination at Bristol, and the possibility of presenting theses, as at Birmingham and Liverpool. At Bristol the Diploma is granted on the work done during the year, both written and practical. A similar arrangement prevails at Oxford for practical work, with the additional requirement that the student must prepare notes of lessons to be submitted to the examiners. These usually include a short course in the subject of which the student has made a special study. A valuable feature of the work of the Cambridge Training Department, and of the Training Department at Leeds, is the provision for the attendance of students at psychological laboratories for a course in Experimental Psychology. Facilities of a similar kind were afforded at Bedford College for Women (London University) of which the Training Department has recently been closed. Where this is not possible owing to the non-existence of a psychological laboratory, provision is usually made for some consideration of the experimental work which has been done in recent years in the field of psychology and education.

The qualifications of the staffs of Secondary Training Institutions cannot be summarized in such detail as was possible in the case of Elementary Training Colleges, but the years since 1908 have seen considerable improvement. It was to this question that the Board of Education first devoted attention, the earliest grants being intended to affect primarily the teaching staff, and though complete statistics are not available for recent years, it is clear from a careful survey of prospectuses that the proportion of Graduates is in all cases about 80 per cent., even including teachers of extra subjects such as Handwork, Drawing, or Music.[2]

[1] Ibid., pp. 420–2.

[2] For University Training Departments the figures given on p. 449 will suffice to bear out this statement, and a Table to be found on p. 450 will convey some idea of the position in three women's Secondary Training Colleges.

In a separate Training College much of the instruction in Educational Theory is given by the staff, which must normally be sufficient also for initiating students into the methods of teaching the main groups of subjects forming part of the curriculum of a Secondary School. The inability to make satisfactory staffing arrangements has been one of the causes which have led to the closing of several institutions in recent years. For example, in the Report for 1912–13 the Board of Education refer to small Training Colleges which had been attempting to do the work with a staff of one.[1] Of the Colleges which still survive, St. Mary's College, Paddington, and the Maria Grey Training College have an arrangement with London University whereby students may attend lectures by the University staff in Education and other subjects, thus in some measure sharing the advantages enjoyed by students in a University Training Department. Moreover, two of the staff of the former College and three of the latter are recognized teachers of London University. In Colleges which have a Secondary School in close association with them, as is the case with the two mentioned above, specialists on the school staff lecture to students on the teaching of their subjects, and so far as possible arrangements are made for lectures to be given to the students by teachers of experience from other schools.

The adequacy of the staffing arrangements of a University Training Department so far as the training of Secondary Teachers is concerned is somewhat more difficult to estimate than that of a Training College, for the members of the staff are also engaged in dealing with men and women who are preparing for work in Elementary Schools. They may also be responsible too for the instruction of students taking Education as part of a Degree Course, as at Sheffield, or as a subject of Advanced Study for a superior degree, as at Manchester. On the other hand, the Department is usually able to supplement its resources by arranging for additional lectures to be given by leading members of the University staff in other Departments, or by expert teachers. Thus in the session 1920–1 the year's work at Armstrong College, Newcastle, included lectures on the teaching of Classics by the University Professor, on the teaching of

[1] *Report*, 1912–13, p. 177.

English by the Senior English Master at Gateshead Secondary School, and on the teaching of Mathematics by the Divisional Inspector of Secondary Schools, an experienced teacher of the subject.

This system of occasional lectures by outside experts is likely to be developed more fully in the future, and lectures in Educational Theory are often planned so that the same course may be taken by more than one group of students; where special instruction is needed for those preparing for work in Secondary Schools it is usually given by the Professor and one or two of the more experienced members of the staff, particularly those with experience as teachers in Secondary Schools. Manchester is fortunate in having two Professors of Education, one of whom is able to devote his attention mainly to advanced students, leaving the other free to act as Director of the Training Department.

Methods of Instruction. The emphasis placed upon different portions of the syllabus varies, as might be expected, with the special knowledge and inclinations of the staff, but the methods of instruction in theoretical subjects are always, so far as possible, such as are suitable for University students—lectures, essay writing with discussion, tuition to small groups or to individuals. The amount of the last two depends mainly on the strength of the staff, and in many University Training Departments the variety and the number of students have hitherto rendered it difficult to arrange for very much. In those Training Departments from which the Two-Year Student has been eliminated, the problem is simpler, and, given an adequate staff, more is possible in this direction. The final year of professional training for Four-Year Students preparing for work in Elementary Schools can be much more readily combined with a one-year course for Secondary Teachers than can the professional work of the Two-Year Student, and considerable economy of time and energy results, as well as a much greater intermingling of students of all types for some part of their work.

In the few cases where the training has been wholly given in a Secondary School the theoretical instruction given to students by the member or members of the staff responsible for it has taken the form of individual tuition and general guidance in reading rather than formal lecturing. For this reason it

should be on the whole more effective, though much clearly depends on the teacher responsible for the instruction. The possibility of changes in staff, and the difficulty of securing teachers able and willing to deal adequately with the theoretical part of the course, militate somewhat against the extension of this system. Few teachers have the time, even if they have the inclination, to keep abreast of more than a few of the educational movements of the day, and it is a significant fact that in one, at least, of the schools approved in 1913–14 for this purpose —the Exeter Maynard Girls' School—arrangements are now made for the theoretical instruction to be given by the staff of the Training Department of University College. Modified in this way the system of training becomes more nearly akin to the revised scheme recently adopted by the Training Departments of Oxford and Cambridge, though where the school is the responsible and delegating party greater emphasis is naturally placed on the practical training received there, and the larger proportion of the students' time devoted to it.

Arrangements for the practical training of students in Training Colleges and Training Departments of Universities show considerable variety in matters of detail, but correspond in the main to one or other of the types referred to in the Board of Education's regulations, the one in which the College or Department plays a considerable part in the practical training of students, the other in which a great deal of this is delegated to the staff of a Secondary School. Extracts from accounts given by the Head Teachers of one or two Secondary Schools will convey to the reader, much better than a more general explanation, the way in which this very necessary part of the student's training is carried out. Here are the arrangements in a girls' school which receives students from a Training College, as described by the Head Mistress :

' I hand over to the College a class for two or three lessons a week for various subjects. Unless the student is very successful she does not usually take the same class for more than one term. Each student discusses with the member of the school staff concerned with her subject the syllabus of the teaching for the term, but tutors come with the students to criticize the work and they take full responsibility ; their observation work is done entirely at the College.'

Another Head Mistress, to whose school students are sent from a University Training Department, writes:

'The students are given opportunities of seeing the general work of the school and particularly of watching the teaching of their own special subject. Then they are given part of a form, or sometimes a whole form, to teach, and they either follow the scheme of the Mistress who would have taught that subject, or they make their own scheme of lessons under the direction of the Head of the Department. The students discuss with the Head Teacher their work and their Form Management. They have all the privileges and responsibilities of Form Mistresses and are regarded as Mistresses by the girls. The tutor from the University pays visits at any time, and I make a practice of going to these lessons constantly. As a rule the students are in the school two and a half to three days a week during two terms—they have their examination in the school.'

Compare with these the following accounts of the arrangements in two large boys' schools, both receiving students from University Training Departments. The Head Master of the one writes:

'The practical training extends over a period of sixty days. . . . Normally two days a week are spent in the school. A student is attached to one or more masters in the school so that he may have opportunity to observe teaching methods in those subjects in which he is particularly interested. During the early weeks of his practice the student makes himself acquainted with the general aim and scope of the various subject syllabuses. He is then asked to prepare lessons selected by the master in charge, who gives assistance in selection and arrangement of matter. After a lesson has been given by the student, advice and criticism are offered by the master in charge. In the early part of the course the set lessons do not exceed one per half-day. Towards the end of his training the student may be asked to carry on the work of a class for the whole of a school day. As the number of classes seen regularly by the student does not generally exceed three or four he has opportunity to become well acquainted with the boys. This ensures that the conditions under which he gives his lessons are quite normal, and his powers of maintaining ordinary discipline are exercised and strengthened. The student has opportunity to investigate general problems of school organization. The practical examination for the Diploma is carried out in the school. The student prepares three lessons—one of which he is asked to give in the presence of the examiners from the University. The prepared lessons are those which would

form part of the ordinary work of the classes with which the student is acquainted. The examiners, before making their report, confer with the masters who have assisted in the training of the student.'

The arrangement in the other school is as follows :

'A student in the last year of his course is sent to us for one term, and is placed under the direction of a supervisor selected from the school staff, who arranges his time-table. The student's work comprises (*a*) observation of lessons given by different masters in the school, (*b*) teaching a form or set in his principal subject through the term, (*c*) helping the staff generally by taking forms in emergencies and in other ways. The supervisor is present at some time when he is teaching, and discusses his work with him weekly at a set time. The time spent in these ways by the student is roughly half the normal time of a master, the rest of the time being needed for reading, in which he is guided by the supervisor. If he can the student takes charge of one of the school games or helps with the school corps or one of the school societies ; and at the end of term takes a share in the School Examination ; and generally is treated much as a junior member of the staff.'

Such accounts might be multiplied, but the essential features would be much the same. Either the school practice is under the supervision of the Training Institution with the co-operation of the school, and takes place on one or two days a week over a long period, or, as in the last instance quoted, the student spends a continuous period in the school, say a school term of about ten weeks, and is for that time under the entire supervision of one or more members of the school staff. The former arrangement is more commonly found in the Women's Training Colleges and the Training Departments of the newer Universities ; the latter is the system adopted by the University Training Departments of Oxford and Cambridge. The Oxford scheme[1] is interesting and is thus described in a circular issued by the Training Department :

Practical Work of Students in Schools away from Oxford

As a result of a conference with representatives of the Head Masters' Conference the Department has decided, with the sanction of the Board of Education, to send its Students, whenever possible, to a school away from Oxford for a term of continuous practical experience under supervision. It is an essential

[1] The Cambridge scheme is on the same lines.

part of the arrangement that the Student shall give about half his time to practical work and shall be free for the other half to carry out a prescribed course of reading for the Diploma Examination. He will throughout the term send essays based upon his reading to the Staff at Oxford.

During the time devoted to practical work it is hoped that the student will be able to acquaint himself with, and, so far as possible, take part in, every department of the school life both in and out of the class-room. For the practice in teaching the following are the most important points : (*a*) The Student should if possible be placed under the care of one experienced master : (*b*) he should be present at lessons given by members of the regular staff in his own special subject and in other subjects as well, especially those nearly allied to his own : (*c*) he should as soon as possible be allowed in accordance with the Master's instructions and in his presence to give occasional lessons himself : (*d*) he should be given as soon as possible a small amount of independent teaching under the general direction and supervision of a regular master.

Provided that these general lines are, so far as possible, followed, the arrangement of the Student's work is left to the School. It is recognized that the amount of independent work a Student can be allowed to do must depend upon the aptitude he displays, but it is hoped that the School will utilize him for any purpose within his capacities and will give him as much teaching as possible. The Student will keep a diary or record of his practical work from day to day, and will at the end of the term send in to the Department a short account of his experience. The Head Master will also be asked to make a brief report.

Some Training Departments arrange for one or more continuous periods of teaching practice in the University Vacation, and wherever possible the student is for this purpose sent only to one school. The experience thus gained is supplemented by work of a more general character. Visits to other schools are arranged for the purpose of observing special features of organization or methods of teaching. Demonstration lessons are given in local schools by members of the staff, and in all but a few Secondary Training Institutions criticism lessons are given regularly by one or other of the students. Where numbers and time allow a student is made responsible for a short course of lessons in his special subject. One or more members of the staff are present on these occasions, and the way in which the student tackles this part of his work, including the preparation of his

notes of lessons, is noted in the report on teaching practice which is usually required by the examiners for the Diploma at the end of the course. In several Training Departments, as for example at Aberystwyth, more strictly technical exercises find a place in the curriculum—' practice in the proper use of the voice, of the blackboard or other apparatus, and in various methods of description, illustration, questioning, &c.' Such exercises can, of course, be carried out in the lecture rooms of the Department.

Views on Training. Having thus indicated the main characteristics of the training provided for teachers in Secondary Schools, we may pass on to a few more general considerations. We have pointed out that indifference to training still prevails among the authorities responsible for the staffing of boys' schools, and of some girls' schools too. Some of this is doubtless mere conservatism; where there is anything approaching to antagonism it may usually be traced to a dislike of the kind of training provided rather than to a denial of the need for any special preparation. The earlier arrangements for training Secondary Teachers were akin to those provided in the Elementary Training Colleges of the day, and were deprecated as producing teachers who trusted in methods and apparatus and so were mechanical in method and spirit. Such a College as the Maria Grey, for example, represented in its early years the application of the principles which had governed the training of Elementary Teachers to the preparation of mistresses for Secondary Schools. General studies and professional training were combined, and the latter was at first in the hands of lecturers who had passed through an Elementary Training College.[1] The rise of Training Departments in connexion with Universities represented a reaction against this tendency, but against them in turn the objection was raised that the study of theory as expounded by text-books was of small value to the intending teacher. Criticisms such as these have doubtless been instrumental in liberalizing the training of the Elementary Teacher on the one hand, and clarifying and systematizing the study of educational theory on the other.

The charge of an undue emphasis on theory, however, still

[1] Cf. *B. of E., The Training of Women Teachers for Secondary Schools* (1912), Educational Pamphlets, No. 23, p. 15.

remains. Thus the Incorporated Association of Head Masters (of Secondary Schools) in a statement of educational policy adopted in 1917 refers to the supply of trained teachers for Secondary Schools as negligible, and alleges among other causes the fact that 'much of the training given does not inspire confidence because it seems to fail in securing a reasonable expectation that the trained teacher will be able to teach '.[1]

Again the Association of Head Mistresses of Secondary Schools at their Annual Conference in 1907 carried a resolution, 'That this Association accepts no system of training as satisfactory in which the theoretical work of the student is not based on the practical work', and in 1913 their Executive signified a general approval of the scheme of training based upon the school which the Board then brought forward for consideration.

The Head Masters' Conference, composed of Head Masters of schools sending a certain number of pupils yearly to the Universities, has long advocated professional training,[2] but, like the Head Mistresses' Association, deprecates any training which is not based on the school. Indeed, the Oxford and Cambridge schemes, to which we have already referred, were the outcome of a conference held in October 1920 between the Head Masters' Conference Committee and representatives of the Universities of Oxford, London, and Cambridge, as well as of the Board of Education, and are the result of an attempt to combine more effective training in school with the theoretical work undertaken by the University Department.

The views of Assistant Teachers appear to be much the same. For example, the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools considers that no training course is satisfactory which does not include a definite period of time spent in the actual work of the class-room, and in the normal activities of school life. Without exception all these Associations consider that professional training should follow general education, the Incorporated Association of Head Masters adding also that the same general principles should apply to both Elementary and Secondary Teachers.

The attitude of the Board of Education towards the profes-

[1] The Incorporated Association of Head Masters, *Educational Policy*, 1917, p. 19.

[2] See p. 30.

sional training of Secondary Teachers is apparently favourable. In the reports from which we quoted the statistics at the beginning of this chapter, reference is made to the need for better equipped teachers in Secondary Schools, and we have already referred to the grants in aid of training made since 1908. But the most effective means of increasing the number of trained teachers is one which the Board hesitate to use. In the Regulations for Secondary Schools is a clause which says that ' where the Board think fit, they may, on consideration of the teaching staff as a whole, require that a certain proportion of all new appointments shall consist of persons who have gone through a course of training recognized by the Board for the purpose '.[1] How frequently the Board does think fit to exercise the power which it has so reserved to itself is not stated in the official reports, but it is certain that were the requirements more definite the increase in the number of graduates seeking training would be more marked.

The Teachers Registration Council, a semi-official body, about which more will be said later, adopts a more definite position. Among the conditions which must be complied with before registration can be completed is the following :

' The applicant must produce evidence satisfactory to the Council of having completed successfully a course of training in the principles and methods of teaching, accompanied by practice under supervision. This course must extend over a period of at least one academic year or its equivalent, and must be carried on under conditions approved by the Council for this purpose.' [2]

The Council adds that until the 31st December 1923 this regulation may be modified in certain cases. After that date the above conditions may be made absolute, and, should registration become a generally accepted qualification for appointments under Local Education Authorities, the line taken by the Teachers Registration Council will have considerable effect—unless, as one writer suggests, the date 1923 should prove to be ' of the nature of the movable feasts '.[3]

[1] *B. of E. Regulations for Secondary Schools*, 1921, ch. iii, par. 16. Cf. ch. i, p. 32.

[2] Teachers Registration Council. Conditions of Registration.

[3] Watson, *Encyclopaedia and Dictionary of Education*, p. 1504. Article by Cloudesley Brereton on ' Secondary Education in England '.

Generally speaking, the tendency to-day is, in the newer type of Secondary School at least, to prefer a teacher with professional training in addition to a degree. The increasing adoption of scales of salaries which make an additional allowance in respect of training is a step in the same direction,[1] and the fact that the ranks of teachers for Secondary Schools have for some time been recruited partly from ex-students of Elementary Training Colleges and Training Departments is some indication that the earlier prejudice is gradually dying down. This the experience of the Heads of such Colleges and Departments confirms.

So far as Head Teachers of the older Secondary Schools are concerned, there is as yet little evidence that any great change of attitude has taken place, and that a policy so long advocated in theory is carried out to any appreciable extent in practice. More frequent conferences such as that held in 1920 are needed. Mild interest might then be replaced by keenness, and there would be more possibility of a type of training being evolved which would command the confidence of Head Teachers, because (to adapt a previous quotation) ' there would be a reasonable prospect that the products thereof would know how to teach '.

Criticisms of Training Course. Educational opinion is then, on the whole, in favour of professional preparation for the Secondary Teacher, and criticisms are chiefly directed against the kind of training provided for him. Some of these it will be helpful to examine a little more closely.

Diploma Courses are based on the assumption that the teacher should found his practice on principles which he acquires at the outset of his career. In order to train the mind of the child he must know what is generally accepted as to the working of that mind. To enable him to think out aims and appreciate the significance of education in social development, he should know something of the ideas which have been most potent in modifying and shaping educational organization and practice. As a future teacher he should be familiar with the methods, successful and otherwise, which have been adopted by teachers in bygone days, and with the development of educational systems in his own and other countries in recent years. Hence the general inclusion of

[1] Appendix C, p. 440.

Psychology, of the History of Education, and of what in the London University Diploma syllabus is termed ' Methodology '.

It is less customary in these days than it was a few years ago to decry the study of Psychology ; indeed, we may well wonder at times whether the pendulum has not swung too far in the opposite direction. Some knowledge of the child-mind is admitted on all hands to be desirable for the teacher, but critics doubt how far theoretical instruction in Psychology can be a help either in promoting an understanding of the child or in evolving successful methods of teaching. Far better, they urge, for the young teacher to obtain psychological data by the study of his pupils in the class-room, and learn the value of methods by observing results.

A criticism of a somewhat different kind is referred to in the Board of Education's Report for 1912–13, namely, that it is inadvisable to impose on all students alike the philosophical or quasi-philosophical studies which preparation for Diploma examinations necessitates.[1] These, it is suggested, are suited rather for selected students and for those with philosophical training.

The views of teachers who have passed through a Diploma Course and have spent some years in the schools lend colour to these criticisms. It is not uncommon for them to assert that the study of Psychology and of Educational Principles has little meaning at the time, much of it being, to quote one student, ' above our heads ', though acquiring more or less significance later when experience has supplied data lacking in student days. The History of Education, though interesting in the hands of some lecturers, is regarded by most students as a subject to be ' got up ' for examination purposes. Practical acquaintance with teaching method, and particularly contact with children in school, are the parts of the training to which they look back as of most value.

The value of criticisms expressed by students while in training must necessarily vary with their experience and judgement, but when they represent the considered opinions of the whole student body of a Training Department such criticisms merit careful attention. Such at least has been the experience of the staff of Manchester

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, p. 178.

University Education Department, for during the session 1919–20 a Student Committee prepared a report on the Training Course, which, after discussion and approval by the whole of the students, was presented to and discussed with the staff. The time and energy devoted to the preparation of the report were evidence of the keenness of the students; the recommendations which it contained proved that they were anxious to make the most of their course. Fewer lectures, more opportunity for self-expression by means of essays and discussion groups, a closer relation of theory and practice in properly organized and supervised practising schools, with provision also for some experience in teaching before entering upon a training course, were the main recommendations.[1] The machinery improvised in 1919 has been retained, and a Students' Representative Committee now provides an excellent channel through which teachers in the Department may be acquainted with the considered opinion of their students, to the mutual advantage of both parties. Naturally recommendations become less 'revolutionary' as time goes on, but a number of modifications have already been made in the course, among them being the placing of the History of Education among the optional subjects.[2]

Criticisms of Diploma Courses, however, do not pass unchallenged. Members of the staffs of University Education Departments uphold their quasi-philosophical character on the ground that only a course of this type will suffice to develop in the intending teacher just those qualities most essential to him in his work—a clear perception of aims, the power of adjusting means to ends, clarity of thought, and breadth of outlook. Experience has shown, they say, that a University Degree Course, even though terminating in high Honours, does not necessarily develop these qualities, in proof of which they call attention to the fact that a certain proportion of these students prove unequal to the course and fail to qualify for the Diploma. Moreover, they urge, it is not possible to convert the student into an expert teacher in the space of one year, and therefore the

[1] The last was not a unanimous recommendation.

[2] For fuller details see *The Times Educational Supplement*, July 1920, or a booklet entitled *Self-Government for Education Students*, published by the Students' Committee in October 1920. An account of the views of students at another University appeared in the *School World* for October 1917.

greatest benefit which training can confer upon him is to send him out into the schools with a right attitude towards his work—willing to learn, keen to appreciate any and every honest effort to find improved methods of teaching, and yet not led away by every new doctrine. They ask their critics to judge the training, not by the newly-fledged *diplômé*, but by the maturer teacher of four or five years' standing : for only thus do they consider it possible to estimate the true value of the preparation he has received. Again they point out that the objections raised to the study of Psychology in the past have been due to the theoretical character of the instruction, but that of recent years there has been a steady tendency in the direction of making the study more concrete, and its treatment more scientific and less philosophical. Psychology to-day is less exclusively an affair of the intellect and of the individual. Stress is laid on the motor and active side of life, and on the importance of social consciousness as a factor in the development of the individual mind. Thus it is possible to relate it to Physiology on the one hand and Social Science on the other. As to its value in shaping methods opinions differ. It is usually agreed that the aid it affords is general rather than specific, but as proof of its value one Professor of Education observes that, so far as his experience goes, success in after-life as a teacher is more usually correlated with a sound knowledge of Psychology than with a ready knowledge of particular methods of class management and teaching.[1]

The History of Education is perhaps the least valiantly defended part of the Diploma syllabus. A purely biographical treatment is now almost a thing of the past. So far as classical and mediaeval times are concerned, emphasis is laid on the development of educational ideas by the few outstanding thinkers of the period, while in more modern times attention is also directed to the sociological and institutional aspects of the subject. In the Birmingham Diploma Examination, for example, no separate paper is set in the History of Education, and so far as possible the course is treated in connexion with the other parts

[1] For an American inquiry into this question see Meriam, *Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching* (1905). The main conclusions are summarized in an Essay on 'The Causes and Conditions of Efficiency in Teaching' to be found in Strayer and Thorndike, *Educational Administration* (1913), Pt. II, § 9.

of the syllabus. At Manchester, as we have seen, the subject is no longer compulsory.

It was criticisms such as those we have been discussing which led to the experiments in training based on the school which were initiated in 1913–14. In them, as in the arrangements made for the training of teachers of young children of which we shall give some account in the following chapter, we may see the contribution of the practical teacher to the solution of this problem. He would make sure of securing for the would-be teacher plenty of school-practice, under conditions as nearly normal as possible, and under skilled and sympathetic supervision: the rest should, he thinks, depend on the inclination and on the capacity of the student. To this University Professors of Education do not give unqualified assent. They regard one year as all too short a period of preparation, and if one part must give way to another, principles are more important at this stage than practice: the man well grounded in these and facing his task in the right spirit will steadily evolve methods far sounder and better than any he may learn by imitation. There are difficulties too, some of them point out, in entrusting the practical training wholly to the school; for unless theory and practice are taught by the same people, the student may have little or no opportunity of putting into practice methods which are expounded and advocated in the lecture room and comparing them with others in use in the school.

Comparison with Two-Year Courses for Elementary Teachers. The distinctive features of Secondary Training Courses are brought out clearly by comparison with the Two-Year Course followed by the majority of students preparing for work in Elementary Schools.[1] Certain obvious differences will occur at once to the reader. Diploma Courses for Secondary Teachers are purely professional, and in the majority of cases post-graduate, based definitely on the principle that the general education of the student should be completed before training is begun. Furthermore, the system aims solely at producing the specialist teacher, and consequently avoids some of the difficulties experienced in the Elementary Training College. Under these conditions the

[1] The fourth year of a Four-Year Course for Elementary Teachers has much in common with post-graduate courses for Secondary Teachers. Cf. p. 116.

work of students and staffs alike becomes more effective, while the age and greater knowledge of the former make it possible to place more responsibility upon them and leave more to their initiative. How much can be done in this direction is seen in those cases where the University Training Department is willing to accept a thesis or other written work prepared during the year, in lieu of the whole or part of a formal examination.

Other and less obvious differences are of considerable importance. Of these the first is the more general character of the regulations of the Board of Education for the training of Secondary Teachers as compared with those for the training of the Two-Year Student in an Elementary Training College. For the latter the Board of Education prescribes syllabuses, and in the majority of cases conducts a great part of the examination, exercising also a close supervision over the arrangements for accommodation and instruction. For Secondary Teachers no curricula are prescribed, and only general conditions are laid down to be complied with for purposes of grant. The explanation of this is doubtless partly historical, for elementary education, and with it the training of Elementary Teachers, has for almost a century been state-aided and state-controlled, whereas it is only since 1902 that the Central Authority has exercised any real control in the field of secondary education, and barely fourteen years have elapsed since regulations were first issued for the training of Secondary Teachers. The independent character of the earlier attempts to provide for the training of Secondary Teachers ensured a relatively greater degree of freedom from the control of the Central Authority during the formative period, and though, for financial reasons, relations between the Board of Education and Secondary Training Authorities have become closer in recent years, they have remained much more relations of equality than those prevailing between the Central Authority and the authorities responsible for the training of Elementary Teachers. Nevertheless, though the regulations in the former case have permitted greater variety and more experiment, they have yet, presumably, been sufficient to enable the Board of Education to satisfy themselves as to the character of the training given.

From the point of view of staffing and of practical training the Elementary Training College claims certain advantages. In

the matter of staff it is more self-contained than the majority of institutions for training Secondary Teachers, for of necessity the staff must include specialists in each of the principal subjects included in the curriculum, and of recent years the qualifications of these have been improving. Moreover, they have been made increasingly responsible for the instruction in the methods of teaching their special subjects. University Training Departments, on the other hand, have at times to call in outside assistance for this purpose, and the Secondary Training College with a school attached utilizes the specialist teachers there in this way. The third arrangement has many advantages, and the closer association of one or more schools in the vicinity with University Training Departments for purposes of instruction in teaching methods is a very real need. The success of the arrangement depends upon effective co-operation between school and Department, and demands for the former a specially selected and ample staff—conditions which are difficult to secure.

For the Two-Year Course it is claimed that the training is more synthetic and real, and the Principal of a Training College with experience both of this and of Secondary Training Courses, affirms that 'given the right people' (on the staff of the Elementary Training College) 'the whole training seems more "alert" and adventurous. It is naturally more extensive, while the methods of teaching individual subjects are taken much more thoroughly and with much more attention and readiness for experiment. Demonstration lessons in an Elementary Training College—while of necessity somewhat detached or artificial as to conditions—are given a clear emphasis and have a real value.' Similar expressions of opinion are forthcoming from others with like experience, and in addition they point out that students in Elementary Training Colleges receive far more expert guidance, more even when every allowance is made for their greater need. This guidance is given by those responsible for instruction in method, and is therefore not merely greater in amount, but also more effective than that received by the student preparing for work in a Secondary School. He often receives his practical training under a somewhat haphazard arrangement—dividing his time among several schools, and working under joint supervision of a very informal character. That this comparison is not without justification may be gathered

from the fact that in several Secondary Training Institutions there is a steady progress towards an arrangement whereby the student obtains most of his practical experience in one school under more effective supervision from the staff of the Training Department. But on the other hand, as we have seen, there is a body of opinion which favours the delegation of practical training very largely to the Secondary School on the ground that it thereby becomes less artificial, and, by implication, more effective than the training received by the student in the Elementary Training College.

On one question, however, there is general agreement, namely, that the Elementary Training College is in a far better position for obtaining facilities for teaching practice. Not merely are there fewer Secondary Schools than Elementary, but, to the former, training authorities have no right of entry, and there are proportionately fewer Secondary Teachers who have been trained, or have any real appreciation of the necessity for training. In their Report for 1912–13, for example, the Board of Education called attention to the difficulties experienced by Cherwell Hall, Oxford, and the Cambridge Women's Training College in obtaining adequate facilities for school practice,[1] and the same difficulty is apparent in reports of University Training Departments published in recent years. Should any considerable and permanent increase take place in the number of students entering upon a course of training for teaching in Secondary Schools this problem would become a very serious one even in those large towns, such as London, where hitherto rather less difficulty has been experienced than elsewhere.

Self-sufficiency in the matter of staff is not without its dangers. Those Elementary Training Colleges which lay great stress on criticism and discussion lessons and on supervision, tend to lose touch with the realities of the class-room, and where, as sometimes happens, the teaching experience of the staff is either slight, non-existent, or somewhat remote in point of time, the practical training in teaching loses much of its value. For all whose task it is to train students to teach there should be some provision whereby they can at intervals renew their acquaintance with the everyday work of the school, and test their own theories and

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1912–13, p. 176.

methods under conditions more normal than those of the lecture theatre, and more akin to those which their students will encounter in the years to come.

One further difference remains—a difference of curriculum. The Elementary Teacher at some time during his training receives instruction in what we may term art and craft subjects; for the Secondary Teacher of middle and upper forms such provision is rarely if ever made, and though it may be argued that these subjects form no part of the curriculum in the majority of Secondary Schools, or where they do are the domain of the specialist, there are many who believe that the education of the child and the training of the teacher are alike incomplete without the inclusion of instruction and practice in some art or craft. To discuss this would take us too far afield, but we note it as being indicative of the greater importance which these subjects are likely to assume in the education of the future.[1]

The late and gradual development of facilities for the training of Secondary Teachers, due on the one hand to the slower progress in secondary as distinct from elementary education, and on the other to disbelief in or indifference to professional training, has had one important result. Such advance as has been made has been based on considered principles rather than traditional practice. The essential features of the system have been determined in the main by the influence of the University on the one side and of the schoolmaster on the other, and a considerable measure of agreement has been secured: it is agreed, for example, that all courses of training must be post-graduate, and must include a study both of theory and practice, the former preferably under the guidance of University Teachers. The soundness of these principles we cannot but admit. The main difference of opinion concerns the relative importance of theory and practice and the time and place for the latter. Here a compromise seems possible, for if the system whereby a longer period, say a term, is spent in one school under normal conditions could be supplemented by adequate practice under supervision and by demonstrations of teaching methods in a school closely

[1] See also the *Report of the Consultative Committee (B. of E.) on Differentiation of the curriculum for boys and girls respectively in Secondary Schools*, 1923.

associated with the Training Department, we should have a form of training combining the best features of both the elementary and the secondary systems.

The contribution of the schoolmaster to the problems of teacher training can be of very great value, and it is important that means should always be found of ascertaining his views. An excellent illustration of the gain which would result may be seen by reference to a series of recommendations drawn up by representatives of various associations of Secondary Teachers in the years immediately following the activities of the Bryce Commission. In the spring of 1896 the London Division of the Incorporated Association of Head Masters appointed a Sub-Committee to consider whether any steps could be taken on behalf of the training of Secondary Teachers. From these beginnings developed what was known as the Training of Teachers Joint Committee, on which representatives of the Head Masters were associated with representatives of other Associations of Secondary Teachers, and a few co-opted members, in a careful consideration of the whole question. Their findings were embodied in a series of recommendations which have undoubtedly influenced subsequent development, but apparently the machinery which had proved so useful was allowed to lapse and no further united action was taken. Of a similar character, though more restricted in scope, was the Conference in 1920 to which we referred earlier in this chapter.

Fortunately the machinery lies ready to hand in the Teachers Registration Council, with a panel of Secondary Teachers composed very largely of representatives of the Associations which co-operated in the recommendations of 1896. Here we have the means of ascertaining at intervals the views of teachers, and of maintaining standards for the respective Diplomas. To the work of the Council we shall have occasion to refer in a subsequent chapter.

The provision of adequate facilities for the practical training of students is probably the most difficult problem which the University Training Department is called upon to solve. Demonstration or practising schools of a reasonable size would be a very real help, but there would still remain the longer period of teaching under normal conditions to be arranged. It is difficult to believe that there are insurmountable objections to an exten-

sion of the policy long adopted for Elementary Schools whereby it is a condition of grant that a school, if required and if circumstances permit, should be prepared to receive a limited number of students for this purpose. This condition, especially if followed by a much-needed increase in the number of Secondary Schools, would ensure ample facilities for this very necessary part of the students' training, and remove one of the principal defects of existing courses.

The importance of the arrangements which we have described in this chapter is far greater than their extent, for they embody distinct contributions to the general problem. To the Universities we owe the emphasis on Educational Theory and Psychology, and the development on this basis of a post-graduate course; to the schoolmaster the insistence on practical experience of school conditions. Again, the nature of the relations between training authorities and the Board of Education have shown that the retention of initiative and independence is not inconsistent with State-aid and State-inspection. Greater freedom has in the past no doubt resulted in many different standards; but so far as the Training Departments of Universities are concerned, these differences have probably been no greater than exist between other University Departments. Finally, the criticisms of Secondary Teachers and the requirements of the Teachers Registration Council are evidence that, though opinions may differ, ideals of training are high, and as teaching attains more fully the status of a profession there should be little danger in entrusting to its representatives the determination (in conjunction with the Training Authorities) of both the standard of qualification and the kind of preparation to be required of intending teachers.

VII

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF YOUNGER CHILDREN AND TEACHERS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS

In our account of Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers we intimated that it was in the education of very young children that most progress had been made in recent years. Such a claim is in itself sufficient reason for introducing here some account of the arrangements made for the training of teachers for this work. But there are other reasons for doing so. In this field development has taken place free from State control, and much of it in other than Public Elementary Schools. Historically, too, the arrangements for training such teachers are closely connected with the earlier student-teacher system to which we referred in discussing the work of the Bryce Commission of 1895.[1]

Schools specifically for very young children may be said to owe their institution to the foresight and philanthropy of Robert Owen, for the infants' school opened by him at New Lanark (*c.* 1812) provided the example which led to the establishment of similar schools in other parts of the country, and of the Écoles Maternelles of France.[2] The zeal of Buchanan, Owen's first schoolmaster, was handed on to Samuel Wilderspin, in turn business man, schoolmaster, and propagandist. In 1824 a short-lived Infant School Society was founded, and Wilderspin became its agent much as Lancaster was the agent of the British and Foreign School Society in its earlier years. He opened schools and instructed teachers in his methods, for he, too, like Lancaster, was a methodizer rather than a discoverer of principles. By his efforts he aroused public opinion as well as increased the number

[1] Ch. i, p. 29.

[2] *The Life of Robert Owen*, by Himself. Jean Frederic Oberlin, pastor of the Ban de la Roche, an Alpine parish south-west of Strasbourg, also established a number of infants' schools about the same time, but his influence was not as great as Owen's. See J. E. Butler, *Life of J. F. Oberlin*, passim.

of schools, and the assertion of the Royal Commission of 1861 that 'infant schools form part of the machinery required for a national system' is evidence of the increasing importance attached to this work.[1]

The vitalizing influence which the movement needed came from abroad. Pestalozzi's labours at Yverdun, and a little later the work of Froebel in Germany and Switzerland, attracted the attention of educationists in Western Europe. To the influence of the one may be traced a new movement in favour of better methods of teaching the young, and the foundation of the Home and Colonial Infant School Society and Training College in 1836;[2] to the influence of the other the opening of the first Kindergartens in 1854 in London and Manchester. Unfortunately the spirit which was the most important element in the teaching of these great educators became obscured by formalism, and development was slow. Not until 1893 was the approval of the Board of Education formally signified, and by 1896 there appear to have been about thirty institutions giving kindergarten instruction, and ten Colleges for the training of teachers.[3] As late as 1910 it was asserted that the spirit of the Kindergarten had barely touched the English state-aided infant school.[4] Such a statement probably under-estimated the advance which had been made by that date, and certainly is not true to-day, for there are now few schools for younger children in which there has not been effected some change in the spirit as well as in the method of instruction, due directly or indirectly to the influence of kindergarten ideas.

Froebel's ideas, like those of most reformers of any age, were of greater value than the particular methods which he evolved from them, and later developments in the teaching of young children have been in the main the result of a re-interpretation and adaptation of those ideas to meet the needs of the child, as these needs came to be more fully understood. The spirit of the Kindergarten, moreover, has penetrated slowly but surely upwards into the lower grades of Elementary and of Secondary

[1] *Newcastle Commission Report*, 1861, Part I, ch. i, p. 32.

[2] Monroe, *Cyclopedia of Education*, articles on 'Home and Colonial Society' and 'Dr. Charles Mayo'. The latter, with his sister, was one of the most ardent popularizers of so-called Pestalozzian methods.

[3] Ibid., article on 'Kindergarten'.

[4] P. Sandiford, *The Training of Teachers in England and Wales*, ch. v, p. 100.

Schools. Such an extension was entirely in accordance with Froebel's ideas, for he proposed to use Handwork of various kinds for older as well as for younger children, as a form of expression, and to develop creative power within the child. The work of Dewey in America gave added impetus to the movement in this direction, while emphasizing the need for close relations between the curriculum of the school and the occupations of society.[1] The ' Infant School ' movement of the early nineteenth century has become the ' Junior School ' movement of the twentieth, and in our treatment of the training of teachers we shall not attempt to draw any distinction between them.

Of recent years a further influence has been at work modifying the methods of teaching the young. From experience based upon a scientific study of defective children, Madame Montessori has evolved principles and methods of teaching which evoke the enthusiasm of some educationists and arouse the criticism of others. The problem which this Italian teacher has set herself to solve, in the spirit and with the training of a scientist, is essentially the devising of an environment in which the child can be free and educate himself without being dependent on the teacher. Apparatus is provided which is self-corrective and which corresponds to the psychological needs of the child.[2] For this reason the true Montessorian deprecates any attempt to separate in practice the apparatus, the means, from auto-education, the end it serves, however legitimately the separation may be made in thought. The use of such apparatus, however, does not remove the necessity for skilled teachers, for to them it falls to observe the behaviour of the child in the environment provided for him, to be taught rather than to teach, and on the basis of what they learn to strive to adapt the environment still more to the needs of the pupil. A full discussion of Montessori principles and methods would be out of place here, but in our survey of teacher training it will be necessary to note how far provision is made for the instruction of teachers in them.

Of the training of teachers for Nursery Schools we propose to speak in a later chapter when dealing with recent developments.[3]

[1] John Dewey, *The School and Society*, 1899.
[2] Maria Montessori, *The Montessori Method.*
[3] *Infra*, ch. xiv, pp. 348–53.

Provision for Training and Examination. The gradual provision of special facilities for the training of teachers of young children is due in the main to the activities of the Froebel Society, founded in 1874, ' to make more widely known the best methods of educating the younger children.' [1]

Institutions providing such facilities are of three kinds :

1. Kindergarten Colleges, or Secondary Training Colleges with Kindergarten Departments.
2. Training Departments of Secondary Schools.
3. Elementary Training Colleges.

Of the colleges devoted principally to the training of teachers for Kindergarten and Junior Schools, perhaps the best known is the Training College maintained by the Incorporated Froebel Institute, which, from the date of its foundation in 1894 until January 1922, was housed in buildings in West Kensington, but has since been transferred to much more commodious and convenient premises on the outskirts of London.

The conditions of admission are similar to those prescribed for entrants to a Training College for Elementary Teachers except that the Preliminary Certificate Examination is not accepted, and students need not sign a declaration of intention to serve in a state-aided school unless they wish to become eligible for maintenance grants from the Board of Education. The course of training extends over two years and one term, but students who wish to become registered teachers may extend the period of training to three years.

Practical Training in teaching is carried out in the College Demonstration School in West Kensington, which has now taken over the old College buildings, and also in various schools—Private, Nursery, Elementary, and Secondary—in the neighbourhood. In addition to the usual Demonstration and Criticism Lessons students spend continuous periods in school, during which they are given entire charge of a class of children, including supervision of games, correction of written work, and management of class-room. They also plan and conduct school expeditions, and pay visits of observation to various social and educational institutions in or near London.

Other Kindergarten Colleges, as, for example, the one at

[1] Explanatory leaflet issued by the Froebel Society.

Bedford, are run on much the same lines, as are also the Kindergarten and Junior Departments of such Secondary Training Colleges as the Maria Grey, Brondesbury, and St. Mary's, Lancaster Gate. In all cases there is a 'Kindergarten' closely connected with the Colleges, of which the fullest possible use is made both for observation and practice, visits to other schools being regarded as supplementary.

Arrangements for the examination of students vary somewhat from College to College, and are at present undergoing modification. Generally speaking the Froebel Union approves syllabuses of instruction, and examiners appointed by them co-operate with the College staff in setting the final papers. The same examiners correct the papers, and the final award is made by an Examination Board upon which are representatives of the College and the Board of Education.

Kindergarten Training Departments of Secondary Schools are in origin a development of that system of student-teachership to which we have already referred. Financial considerations and a conviction of the greater importance of the practical as compared with the theoretical side of training combined to make this method of preparation popular. Exeter High School (1884), and Cheltenham, under Miss Beale (1885), led the way, and the Friends in their Boarding Schools for girls adopted a similar system which was, however, discontinued some ten years ago.[1]

For many years it has been customary for girls of seventeen years of age who have passed an examination of School Certificate standard, and wish to become teachers of young children, to spend a year in the Kindergarten Department of the school which they have previously attended as pupils. Here, if suitable, they have in the past prepared for the Elementary Certificate of the National Froebel Union,[2] and have either completed their training in the same school or passed on to a Training Institution for a Two- or Three-Year Course in preparation for the Froebel Teacher's Certificate. Most students, however, prefer to spend the whole period of training in the same institution, either, that is, in a Training College, or in the Training Department of a

[1] *B. of E., The Training of Women Teachers for Secondary Schools* (1912), Educational Pamphlets, No. 23, pp. 31, 56, 69.

[2] Now replaced by Part I of the Teacher's Certificate Examination.

Secondary School. In this connexion we may note that the Teachers Registration Council refuses to recognize any training of less than three years for these teachers, and for purposes of a complete course only approves Secondary Schools which have a large and separate Training Department, or are within reach of a University. Other Secondary Schools are only approved for One-Year Courses in preparation for Part I of the Teacher's Certificate of the Froebel Union.

The preparation which students in Training Departments of Secondary Schools receive is usually very practical because carried out in close connexion with Kindergarten and Junior Departments. A qualified mistress is in charge of the students (often this is the Head of the Kindergarten or Junior School) and is responsible for the instruction in Educational Theory and School Method, in addition to exercising a general supervision over the practical work of the students. Tuition in general subjects is given by members of the Senior School staff who are specialists, and in the practical training in teaching the Head has the assistance of the Kindergarten staff. If the school is within reasonable distance of a University, students may attend lectures by the staff of the University Training Department. For example, those from Wakefield High School attend lectures in the Principles of Education, School Organization, and Special Method at Leeds University; while students from Leeds High School attend in addition for instruction in Child Hygiene and the History of Education.

The third type of institution, the Elementary Training College, is in a somewhat different position. Here, as we have seen, the course is usually for two years and must be approved by the Board of Education. The general character of this course has been indicated, but we may recall the fact that instruction in the Principles and Practice of Teaching is modified in the case of students who wish to prepare for work in Junior or Infant Schools. For them a special course in the Principles of Teaching[1] is prescribed, and teaching practice in Infant Schools predominates. The final examination is in the hands of the Board of Education or of the College, and Two-Year Students may not sit for examinations conducted by the Froebel Union. At a later

[1] Appendix B, pp. 409–11.

date, however, a number of College Trained Certificated Teachers enter for them, and those who do so are exempt from the general subjects of the examination. Instruction usually follows Froebelian lines, and the required qualifications for the member or members of the staff entrusted with the training of students for Infant and Junior Schools are the Certificates of the Froebel Union—the Teacher's Certificate, with the addition in some cases of the Training Certificate and of the Diploma in Handwork.[1]

The Teacher's Certificate of the Froebel Union is meant to indicate the normal qualifications for teachers of (*a*) children under eight years of age, or (*b*) children between seven and twelve years of age. According as a candidate is qualifying for (*a*) or (*b*) the test of practical skill will be different. The examination is in two parts ; Part I includes general subjects, and Part II more distinctly pedagogic subjects, but the syllabuses show clearly that students are expected to study the academic subjects from the pedagogic point of view. An interesting feature is the attention given to Handwork, one of the compulsory subjects. Here the examination is oral, written, and practical. The oral and written parts are designed to test the candidate's knowledge of the principles underlying Handwork, and her ability to guide the children's activities in accordance with them, as well as her power of choosing suitable Handwork for children of different ages. A certain amount of finished work prepared during the previous period has to be shown by the candidate, and she must also be prepared, if required, to execute some work in the presence of the examiners. In the general character of the prepared work the influence of Dewey has steadily made itself felt : and the models prescribed are usually closely connected with daily life.[2]

Practical tests in teaching form an important feature of the examination. For teachers of children under eight years of age there is a period of forty-five minutes when the candidate is in charge of a group and has to satisfy the examiners as to her ability ' to conduct or supervise their activities with regard to their individual needs '. Some formal lesson must come in this

[1] Both recently instituted, the former in 1914, the latter in 1920.

[2] e. g. 1923—articles of wearing apparel, the furnishing of a model shop or market-place, a series of models in pottery.

period. For teachers of slightly older children (eight to twelve) the period is fifty minutes and must include two lessons, for which notes must be prepared and shown to the Examiner.

The number of candidates entering for the examinations held by the Union is increasing. In 1921, 1,178 candidates entered for the Teacher's Certificate Examination, and in the same year eleven candidates entered for the examination for the Handwork Diploma. The Trainer's Diploma up to that year had been awarded to eleven candidates, most of whom were already engaged in teacher-training work at some school or college. Many teachers actually in service study privately or attend classes in preparation for the Teacher's Certificate Examination, but an analysis of the Class Lists shows that the majority of candidates come from Kindergarten or Secondary Training Colleges or the Training Departments of Secondary Schools.[1] From these institutions students pass into Preparatory Schools, and Kindergarten and Junior Departments of Secondary Schools, or take up work in Private Schools or families, so that any reliable estimate of the number of Kindergarten Trained Teachers of young children cannot easily be made.

Training in Montessori Principles and Methods has not been developed to the same extent, though not even the most extreme Froebelian can afford to ignore her work, and some discussion of it enters into most training courses. A recent estimate places the number of trained Montessori teachers at 650, including in this figure only those who have attended training courses held by Madame Montessori herself at various centres abroad and in England.[2] The eleventh of these courses is to be held in London in 1923. They provide at present the only recognized means of qualifying as a Montessori teacher, for holders of the Diploma are not thereby entitled to set up as trainers of others. Montessori schools are increasing in number in this country as well as in America, and a Montessori Society was established in 1912 for the spread of the ideas underlying the system.[3] There is,

[1] National Froebel Union, Reports of Examiners, &c., for 1921.

[2] Figure supplied by the organizing secretary of the eleventh Montessori Training Course.

[3] Watson, *Encyclopaedia and Dictionary of Education*, article by C. A. Claremont on ' The Montessori Movement in England '.

however, a marked division of opinion among educationists as to whether these ideas will bring about any very radical change in the methods of teaching the young, though there can be little doubt that Madame Montessori has performed a great service to education in promoting a more scientific observation of child behaviour, and in emphasizing the very great need for skilled guidance in the early years.

General Considerations. A few points of general interest may be mentioned in conclusion. In describing the arrangements made for the training of teachers of Secondary Schools we had reason to note the indifference to training which still exists in these quarters. Such a remark applies with far less force to women teachers in the lower divisions of the school, with the result that Junior and Senior Departments often present a striking contrast in this respect. Moreover, the training provided for teachers of young children is pre-eminently practical rather than theoretical, and has maintained that close association with the school which characterized earlier systems, and which has marked recent experiments in the training of teachers of older scholars in Secondary Schools. The emphasis laid on the practical side of the training is reflected in the somewhat exacting nature of the test in teaching included in the examination for the Teacher's Certificate of the Froebel Union.

Again, the division of the syllabus for this examination into two parts, the first consisting of general and the second of professional subjects, reminds us of a similar division of the course of study prescribed for Two-Year Students in Elementary Training Colleges. Unlike the latter, however, Kindergarten-trained teachers do not pursue their preparation for these two parts concurrently. In the first year they devote their attention to the more academic, in the remaining two years to the more professional part of their training; thus enjoying a distribution of time and of work often advocated but rarely adopted for the Two-Year Student.

Of even greater interest is the fact that the development and control of the examinations which have for the past thirty years set the standard and governed the curricula of training institutions for Kindergarten Teachers have been very largely in the hands of trainers and teachers themselves. With one or two

exceptions the Governors of the Froebel Union, whether representative or co-optative, have had actual experience in teaching.[1]

The Teacher's Certificate of the Union has for long been the chief qualification for teachers of young children in other than Elementary Schools, and of recent years has come to be increasingly recognized as a desirable though a subsidiary qualification even in these. By one of those curious anomalies which are not infrequently to be found in our educational system, the Kindergarten teacher, trained for two or three years in other than a state-aided Elementary Training College, has in the past only ranked as an Uncertificated Teacher if she served in a Public Elementary School. To improve her status she had to sit for the Acting Teachers' Certificate Examination of the Board of Education, or spend a further year in an Elementary Training College. Recently, however, the Board of Education has recognized three Colleges (the Froebel Institute, a college at Bedford, and the Maria Grey) for the training of Kindergarten Teachers. Successful students from these Colleges who have passed into Elementary Schools have been granted the status and salary of Certificated Teachers, and under the most recent arrangement are awarded the Board of Education Certificate on the completion of their course. In a Secondary School a teacher who has been to a recognized Kindergarten College may rank as a trained non-graduate teacher.

This review of the arrangements for the training of teachers of young children is liable, from its very brevity, to convey the idea of a rather formal type of training, but such is not actually the case. In no part of the field has there been more appreciation of new ideas and movements, and though the majority of students are trained in what may for convenience' sake be called Kindergarten methods, these are far from corresponding in anything but underlying principles with the methods adopted in the early days of the Kindergarten. Freedom, activity, development, happiness, are the key-notes, the details vary and will continue to vary from college to college and school to school.

[1] The Council of the Froebel Society appoints 8, of Bedford Kindergarten College 4, of the Home and Colonial School Society 2. The Froebel Educational Institute and the Incorporated Association of Head Mistresses each appoint 1. The remaining 2 are co-optative governors.

Such formalism as still prevails in the teaching of young children is steadily giving way before the more widespread appreciation of the value of individuality to which our whole educational system owes so much. Contrariwise it may justly be claimed that the stress now laid by educators on the significance of individual variations might have been a much later development but for the greater freedom allowed to children in even the earliest of Kindergartens as compared with other educational institutions of the nineteenth century.

TEACHERS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS

No survey of existing arrangements for the professional training of teachers would be complete without reference to the provision made for a few smaller groups whom we may include under the general designation of Teachers of Special Subjects. Prior to 1918 the term 'Special Subjects' was, in official parlance, confined to instruction in Domestic Subjects and Manual Training, for which extra grants were then made,[1] and although this restricted use of the term has ceased with the introduction of a substantive grant to Local Education Authorities for all purposes, it is with the teachers of these subjects that we shall deal most fully. There are several other groups, however, for whom training is provided, and with three of these we shall deal very briefly—the Teachers of Physical Exercises, of Music, and of Art.

A more intimate knowledge of the conditions of healthy bodily and mental growth has led to an ever-increasing emphasis on the value of subjects and methods which call into play the activity of the child. To this category all the subjects named above may be said to belong. The introduction of Kindergarten methods of teaching younger children, and of useful forms of practical work for older children were due to various influences, educational, philanthropic, and utilitarian, and for a time there was a gap between them : to-day, however, this is no longer the case, and, from being a luxury for the few, practical subjects and practical methods have become a necessity for all. It is a pro-

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1919–20, p. 19.

vision of the Act of 1918, and one which commands almost universal assent, that Local Education Authorities in developing Elementary Education in their areas shall provide for the inclusion in the curriculum at appropriate stages of practical instruction suitable to the ages, abilities, and requirements of the children.[1] Secondary Schools are following suit and within the next two or three decades, therefore, there is every probability that one of the most fundamental of changes in the educational practice of this country will be complete.

The distinction between practical methods and practical subjects is important, and to ignore it leads to considerable confusion of thought. Particularly is it necessary to bear it in mind in dealing with the question of teacher training. In its method aspect, Handwork, for example, provides a means of expression, of illustration, of approach, and, as such, is obviously the concern of the teacher of those subjects which it thus serves. In its other aspect, Handwork becomes Handicraft, a subject with its own method and technique, claiming a place in the curriculum for older scholars. As such it demands the specialist teacher, the teacher who is also a craftsman, for whose training special provision has been and must continue to be made. So it is with the other subjects which we have included in our list. Beyond a certain point there is need for the specialist teacher, and it is with the training of these that we are chiefly concerned.

Teachers of Domestic Subjects. Facilities for Training. The provision of facilities for the training of Teachers of Domestic Subjects was due, in the first place, to voluntary effort, the earliest institution established for the purpose being the National School of Cookery, opened in 1874 at South Kensington.[2] Within the next three years similar schools were opened at Leeds, Liverpool, Leicester, Edinburgh, and Glasgow, and to these a number of the South Kensington Students went as teachers. On the refusal of the National School in London to undertake the function of an examining body the provincial schools united for purposes of standardization and examination into the 'Northern Union of Schools of Cookery', a title exchanged in 1889 for the more comprehensive one of 'The

[1] Education Act, 1918, Section 2 (*a*).
[2] Ailsa Yoxall, *A History of the Teaching of Domestic Economy.*

National Union for the Technical Education of Women in the Domestic Sciences'. Some of the schools originally uniting in this way withdrew at a later date (Leicester a few years after the formation of the Union, and Liverpool in 1897), but for forty years the Union exercised considerable influence on the training of teachers of Domestic Subjects, conducting examinations and issuing diplomas down to 1915. Many teachers now in service hold the Union's Diploma.[1]

Several schools were established also by Borough and County Councils between 1889 and 1894 in pursuance of their powers under the Technical Instruction Act. These passed under the control of the new Local Education Authorities set up by the Act of 1902.

Regulation by the Central Authority came much later and more gradually than was the case with institutions for the training of Elementary Teachers. The first step was taken in 1885, when the Code prescribed that teachers of approved courses should hold a certificate from one of the Training Schools, which, after 1889, would only be such as were recognized by the Education Department.[2]

Since 1893 the conditions of recognition of a Training School have been defined with steadily increasing stringency; annual inspections followed the introduction of State grants in 1907; courses of instruction were lengthened and syllabuses revised; improvements in premises and in teaching were effected; more and better instruction in Science was provided, and a higher standard of preliminary education required. Finally in 1914, after a complete inspection two years earlier, revised regulations were issued to take effect in 1915, and have continued in force with minor modifications down to the present time.

One result of the increased stringency of the Board of Education's requirements has been a diminution in the number of recognized schools. In 1897 there were twenty-seven,[3] in 1906,

[1] Miss Pycroft, paper on 'The History of Training Schools for Teachers of Domestic Economy in England', read at the International Congress on Technical Education held in June 1897 by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufacture, and Commerce.

[2] *B. of E. Special Report on the Teaching of Cookery*, 1907.

[3] *B. of E. Special Reports*, vol. i, 1896–7. Article by Mrs. Pillow on 'Domestic Economy Teaching in England'.

eighteen.[1] Three appear to have been closed in 1908,[2] and by 1919 there were only thirteen in England, three in Scotland, and one in Wales. Of the fourteen in England and Wales, nine (including the Leeds School transferred in 1907, and the Liverpool School transferred in 1920) are under the control of Local Education Authorities,[3] and all are situated in large towns. The number of students in Training Schools in 1919–20 was 613. Fuller details as to the Training Schools, and statistics showing the total number of students in training for each year since 1909–10 will be found in the Appendix.[4]

Students. Candidates for admission to a Domestic Science Training School must be eighteen years of age, and after 1 August 1923 must have passed one of the examinations prescribed for entrants to a Training College for Elementary Teachers.[5] Those who do not wish to pledge themselves to serve as teachers may enter as fee-paying students. The relatively high cost of a course of training in Domestic Science,[6] together with the greater attractiveness and pleasanter conditions of the work, have, in the past, resulted in students being drawn from a wider range than those who entered Elementary Training Colleges. Changes in the regulations of the Board of Education and the provision of increased financial assistance to students at Training Schools have tended, however, to make such a statement less true of the entrants into Training Schools in recent years.

The majority of the students remain in a Secondary School until the age of eighteen, without any such preparation for their future work as is provided by the Pupil Teacher and Student Teacher systems. There is some difference of opinion among Domestic Science Teachers as to whether a probationary year before training would be advantageous or not, and an experiment of this kind at the Norwich Training School several years ago was but short-lived. A further experiment of a similar kind has recently been devised in Bradford whereby a Student Teacher may confine her work at the Elementary and the Secondary School to Arithmetic, English, Science, Needlework, and

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1906–7, p. 65.
[2] Ibid., 1909–10, p. 165.
B. of E. Statistics, 1919–20, p. 157 (Table 175). One, Preston, is not now recognized.
[4] Appendix B, p. 431, and C, p. 450.
[5] *B. of E. Regulations for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, ch. xi, par. 73.
[6] Now (1922–3) from £120 to £160 per annum.

Drawing, and may spend not more than two half-days a week at a Domestic Subjects Centre in order to observe and practise Cookery, Laundrywork, and Housewifery, in accordance with an approved scheme.[1] The arguments used for and against preliminary training are very much the same as those with which we have already become familiar in connexion with the Student Teacher system, and, as in that case, the balance of opinion seems to be against any but a brief period of preliminary experience for purposes of testing.

Course of Study. All Training Schools provide courses in preparation for teaching in any type of school, and most of them provide in addition special courses suitable for those who wish to take up work in institutions or schools as Matrons, Housekeepers, Cooks, as well as shorter courses for those who wish to become more efficient in their own homes. It is with the Training Courses for Teachers that we are more particularly concerned here. These are of three kinds :

1. Two-Year Courses in preparation for the Board of Education Combined Domestic Subjects Diploma, which entitles a student to teach in Elementary Schools.
2. Third-Year Courses continuous with the former and virtually converting them into Three-Year Courses. These are intended for students who propose to take up work in Secondary or Continuation Schools.
3. One-Year Courses which may either be
   a. Deferred Third-Year Courses taken after a period of teaching.
   b. One-Year Courses for Trained Certificated Teachers who wish to take a third year of specialized training.[2]

The Two-Year Course is the one followed by the largest number of students.[3] In addition to instruction in the Theory and Practice of Cookery, Laundrywork, and Housewifery, in Home Management, and Elementary Science in relation to Domestic Subjects, provision is made for a consideration of the

[1] Foster Watson, *Encyclopaedia and Dictionary of Education*, pp. 474–5, article by A. C. Coffin on ' The Teacher of Domestic Subjects '.

[2] Rarely taken advantage of.

[3] e. g. in 1919–20, 561 out of 613.

Principles and Practice of Teaching as applied to Domestic Subjects, and for actual practice in teaching classes of children. Three-Year Courses provide also for more advanced work in Cookery, Needlework, or Housewifery, and usually include Lectures and Demonstrations to adults, together with a study of Social History and conditions. The Training School staff, premises, and equipment must be approved by the Board as adequate for these courses, and it is worth noting here that no course of less than three years' duration will entitle a teacher to enrolment on the Teachers Register.

The students' time is divided between lecture room, laboratory, kitchens, and schools or centres, under arrangements approved by the Board. Not less than thirty days must be spent in class teaching in schools or centres, and at least half of this period must fall during the second year of training.[1] It is in this connexion that the lectures on the Principles and Practice of Teaching are of particular importance, and syllabuses show that an attempt is being made here, as in other Training Colleges, to give students a scientific basis for educational practice.

The arrangements for examination correspond very closely to those already described for Two-Year Students in Elementary Training Colleges. On the results of the Final Examination the Board of Education award a Diploma for Domestic Subjects, and provisionally recognize the student for a period of two years as qualified to teach Domestic Subjects to scholars in Public Elementary Schools. After two years' satisfactory service, and subject to a favourable report being received from the Woman Inspector, this Diploma may be endorsed by the Board and the teacher fully recognized for work in such schools.[2]

Criticisms of Training. In view of the freedom and diversity which has prevailed in the past the changes brought about by the increased stringency of the Board's Regulations have very naturally aroused considerable criticism. Those Training Schools which had reached a high standard of efficiency had gradually

[1] *B. of E. Regulations for the Training of Teachers*, 1922, par. 74 (*c*).

[2] The present arrangements for examination date only from 1915. Prior to that date examinations were conducted and diplomas issued by individual Colleges or by the National Union (see p. 160). From 1900 to 1907 a few schools availed themselves of an arrangement whereby the Final Examination was conducted by the Board of Education. (*B. of E. Report*, 1906–7, p. 114.)

lengthened their course to three years, or almost three years, and did not consider the reasons adduced by the Board sufficient to justify a reduction of this period. The Board asserted that there was 'not sufficient ground for making the minimum requirements as to the length of the course . . . more severe than those laid down for students who enter Elementary Training Colleges '.[1] Training in teaching adults was dropped when the course was shortened, as not being required by teachers intended for Elementary Schools, a change which students themselves have been heard to regret because of the increased confidence which such experience imparted. Teachers trained in earlier years deplore, too, the decline in manipulative skill shown by the products of the Training Schools to-day, and consider that the compression of the course into a shorter period causes the practical work to be less thoroughly done. They admit, however, that under the earlier system of separate courses the attempt to secure proficiency in technique left little time for anything else.

On the other hand, Inspectors of the Board report that insistence on the importance of the study of educational principles and practice has resulted in a higher standard of skill in practical teaching, and that the training has become more practical and wider.[2] The most noticeable improvement has been effected in connexion with the teaching of Science in relation to the Domestic Arts. In this field the Training School at Leeds did valuable pioneer work, under the guidance and stimulus of the University Professor in Chemistry (Professor Smithells), who devoted a considerable amount of time and thought to devising a course of instruction in Chemistry and Physics intimately connected with household operations.[3]

A criticism made by the Board's Inspectors in 1906 appears to be still applicable in many cases. They pointed out that students expected to work with the most modern apparatus, and were often neither able nor willing to adapt themselves to anything but this, besides being quite unfamiliar with the home circumstances of their pupils.[4] Some attempt has been made to remedy

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1914–15, p. 82. [2] Ibid., 1916–17, p. 72.
[3] *B. of E. Report of the Consultative Committee on Practical Work in Secondary Schools* (1913), Cmd. 6849, p. 286.
[4] *B. of E. Special Report on the Teaching of Cookery*, 1907.

the latter defect. Lectures, visits to crèches, visits to schools in poorer parts, and to rural centres, have all been tried in different Training Schools from time to time, but there is need for a much more systematic handling of this side of the training. Students feel the lack of such knowledge when they come to teach in schools or centres.

A disadvantage of a more general kind is the absence of a vigorous social life in many Training Schools, due largely to the fact that there is not as yet adequate provision for the residence of all students in hostels. It is to be hoped that the authorities maintaining Training Schools will be able to make more adequate provision in this respect, and that every school will in time be in the same position as the one at Gloucester, where all students reside in hostels. More attention has been devoted to the social side of student life in recent years; thus, to quote one example only, the Northern Counties Training College of Cookery and Domestic Science at Newcastle-on-Tyne has now an Old-Students' Guild and a College Magazine.

The teaching of Domestic Subjects in rural schools presents special problems, owing to the difficulty of finding centres conveniently situated and within reasonable distance of a sufficient number of schools. The difficulty is sometimes surmounted by arranging for instruction to be given by a member of the ordinary school staff. For this purpose a Limited Diploma, which could until recently be obtained after a short (fourteen weeks) course at a Training School, is regarded as a sufficient qualification, and since the reinclusion [1] of Housecraft in the schedule of subjects for students in Elementary Training Colleges it has been possible to qualify for such work during the ordinary training period. At Bingley Training College, for example, a fully qualified Domestic Science Teacher is a member of the staff, and a number of students select Housecraft as one of the five subjects which they offer for their Final Examination. To this subject they devote four and a half hours a week throughout the two years, and both give and observe lessons in it.

The Scottish Training Schools at Edinburgh, Glasgow, and

[1] Cookery was included as one of the subjects in a Training College course prior to 1893. One College (Salisbury) was for a time recognized as a Training School and issued Diplomas.

Aberdeen have a direct interest for English educationists, inasmuch as a very large proportion of their students (more especially from Edinburgh) take service in England. One or two points in particular are worthy of note. In the first place, the professional training of Domestic Science students is in the hands of the Provincial Committees of the respective Training Centres, just as is the professional training of other teachers. Secondly, their training still includes lectures and demonstrations to adults, and, finally, the minimum period for a Diploma Course is two years and two terms, the first term of training being regarded as a period of probation.[1] The longer course is said to be one of the reasons why Scottish-trained students are so readily able to obtain appointments in this country.

Domestic Science Schools and Universities. Most Training Schools have no connexion with a University, even when, like the London Schools, for example, they are in a University town. Where a connexion exists it appears to be a comparatively recent development. At Liverpool the only connexion seems to have been a few extra lectures given either at the University or at the Training School by some member of the University Staff. At Leeds, Professor Smithells' interest in the teaching of Domestic Science has resulted in students from the Training School going to the University for instruction in Science, and for a few years (about 1909–12) the Professor himself held classes in Chemistry on Saturday mornings for their special benefit. Sheffield University allows a Degree in Science to be gained after a course taken partly at the University and partly at the Training School, but in practice the amount of time to be devoted to Science appears to be rather more than students taking Diploma Courses can well spare. At Cardiff the Training School is one of the Departments of the University.

The Household and Social Science Department of King's College, London, though not intended to provide a course of training in teaching, is worthy of special notice here, because, on the one hand, it represents the most complete attempt yet made in this country to develop a University Degree Course in Science in so far as it applies to home and social life, and, on the other hand, it will probably supply Domestic Science Training Schools

[1] The course at Aberdeen lasts three years: two years Diploma Subjects, one year professional training.

and Secondary Schools with teachers in increasing numbers in the years to come. With every advantage in buildings and equipment, and with excellent accommodation for students, this Department combines many of the most desirable features of a Domestic Science Training School. The whole of the teaching is connected as far as possible. Laboratory practice plays a large part in the course, and is said to develop manipulative skill and so reduce the amount of actual craft work necessary.

The full course is planned to extend over two years, and the principal examinations, of which there are three, are conducted by a joint body, composed partly of members of the staff and partly of external examiners from the staffs of other Colleges and other Universities. The first Diplomas for one-year courses were issued in 1917; the first Degrees (B.Sc.) were conferred in 1920. From the point of view of the intending teacher the weak feature is the small amount of practice in teaching. Only one half-day in each week of the last term of the course is devoted to this. It is said to be all that time will allow, and, short though it be, has a certain value as a preliminary test for those who have not yet decided on the precise nature of their future career.

This development at King's College is of particular interest inasmuch as it is in a direction approved by the Association of Teachers of Domestic Subjects. This Association has for many years played an active part in shaping the policy of the Board of Education with reference to the training of Domestic Subjects Teachers, and is definitely of the opinion that in the future Universities and Training Schools should work together in providing degree courses of this kind. The sciences, which would form an essential part of the curriculum, would be taken at the University and the craft at the Training School. Were such a scheme adopted, it would, of course, necessitate each Training School being regarded as a part of one or other of the Universities—a development which, as we shall see, would be wholly in keeping with contemplated developments in connexion with the training of other types of teachers.

Teachers of Handicraft: Qualifications. The training of teachers of Handicraft is a comparatively recent development, and its general lines are still in process of being formulated. Instruction in this subject was introduced into England by the

London School Board, which opened the first Woodwork Centre in 1885, and established a number of others as soon as the Technical Instruction Act of 1889 placed definite funds at their disposal. Other School Boards followed suit, and centres soon became fairly numerous. A number of the pioneer teachers in these early days were trained at the Nääs Centre of Herr Otto Salomon, a Swedish teacher of Woodwork of a kind resembling the industrial Handwork introduced into Finland about 1886 by Uno Cygnaeus, and known as Sloyd.

From this time forward development has been steady and continuous. The earliest form of Woodwork was strictly utilitarian, but reaction followed, and a purely disciplinary form was evolved in which technique was regarded as all important, and utility entirely subsidiary. Instruction in Metalwork was added, and during recent years the pendulum has begun to swing again in a utilitarian direction, with the great difference, however, that schemes of instruction are judged not by the market value of the objects produced, but by the educational value of the process of production.

These changes in the conception of the significance of Handicraft as a factor in education are reflected in the modifications which are taking place in the arrangements for training teachers of the subject. For many years the Handicraft instructor was merely a specialist who taught in a separate Centre, qualified in his subject, but not necessarily a trained teacher. Indeed in some Centres, particularly in rural areas, he was an artisan, and though by study and examination coupled with experience some of these became excellent teachers, instruction was usually on somewhat stereotyped lines, and had little or no connexion with the work of the school in other subjects. Incidentally it may be noted that a number of Handicraft Teachers were recruited from among the failures in the examinations for Elementary Teachers.[1] To-day the mere craftsman has almost disappeared from the Training Centre, and the standards of qualification and training are approximating more and more to those for other teachers.

[1] For a fuller account of early developments see article on ' Handwork ' in Pitman's *Encyclopaedia and Dictionary of Education* (Foster Watson, 1921), and the *Report of the Consultative Committee on Practical Work in Secondary Schools*, 1913. Appendix B, p. 132 et seq.

So far as the qualifications of teachers of Handicraft are concerned, the Board of Education until 1920 did little more than recognize certificates issued by two examining bodies, the City and Guilds of London Institute and the Board of Examinations for Educational Handwork. The examinations held by the second of these organizations included tests in drawing and theory as well as in practical work. The latter was tested by work done in the examination room under the eye of an experienced examiner, and also by a series of objects and drawings prepared during the previous year or so by the candidate. Two grades of Certificates were awarded—the Teacher's Certificate and the Teacher's Higher Certificate. The former entitled the successful candidate to teach in Elementary Schools and the lower forms of Secondary Schools, the latter qualified him to teach also in all forms in Secondary Schools and to take Teachers' Classes.[1] These examinations were discontinued in 1920.

The course which the student followed during the period preceding the examination provided excellent training for the future teacher, though at times there was a tendency to avoid technical difficulties. The series of objects and drawings which he made in accordance with a scheme approved by the Board of Examinations remained his property and provided him with valuable illustrations for use in class, as well as guidance in framing courses suitable for school purposes. For the teacher who took charge of the manual instruction in the school to which he was attached as Head or Assistant, an arrangement sometimes found in rural areas, this training was exceedingly valuable, and greatly stimulated the movement towards a type of manual work developed in close connexion with such subjects as Gardening, Elementary Science, and Geography.

The City and Guilds of London Institute is now the only body conducting examinations recognized by the Board of Education.[2] These have hitherto differed somewhat in character from those held by the Board of Examinations. Under regulations, which cease to have effect after this year, there have been two examinations, the First Year and the Final, an interval of not less than one year coming between. The first examination

[1] *Report on Practical Work in Secondary Schools*, 1913, p. 376.
[2] *B. of E. Circular 1251.*

consisted of Practical Exercises in Woodwork and in Drawing designed to test the technical skill of the candidate rather than his ability to construct useful objects, while a test in English was included for 'craftsmen candidates'. The second and final examination included also written papers dealing with the technology of the subject, methods of instruction in Woodwork, and Class Management. A separate series of examinations was held for those who wished to obtain qualifications in Metalwork.[1] The regulations for both examinations have now been modified; the requirement that students shall receive instruction at specially approved classes will be discontinued, and the practical exercises required of candidates will be less technical than before.

The great weakness in the earlier arrangements for Manual Instruction lay in the lower standard of general education often found in the teachers, as well as in their failure to make the fullest use of the subject as a means of education. Gradually it came to be felt by the National Union of Teachers and other bodies interested in the teaching of practical subjects that the qualifications of teachers of Handicraft should approximate more and more to those required of teachers of other subjects, and within the past three years an advance has been made in this direction.

In May 1920 the Board of Education defined their policy. 'The Board', says the Circular issued at that date to Local Education Authorities, 'look forward to the time when all teachers of practical work will be in the fullest sense members of the school staff, and hope that in the majority of cases they will possess or will take steps to obtain, qualifications under Section I of the Code as Certificated Teachers.' In pursuance of this policy the Board shortly afterwards announced that future applicants for recognition as Handicraft Teachers in Public Elementary Schools would be required not only to have obtained special qualifications in Handicraft, but also to have qualified for recognition as Certificated or Uncertificated Teachers under the Code. They stated that they were considering also the question of introducing modifications into the syllabus of the Certificate Examination and of the Preliminary Examination for the Certificate, of such a nature as would, without

[1] *Report on Practical Work in Secondary Schools*, 1913, p. 151.

lowering the general standard of these examinations, render them more suitable for the special requirements of Handicraft Teachers.

As a result of consultations between the City and Guilds of London Institute, Handicraft Teachers, representatives of Local Education Authorities and the Board of Education, regulations and examination syllabuses have been modified in order that Handicraft Teachers may now obtain the status and rank of Certificated Teachers without necessarily taking the whole of the Preliminary Certificate and Certificate Examinations as prescribed for other teachers. Success in examinations held under revised regulations of the City and Guilds of London Institute which come into force this year (1923), will secure various exemptions, and transitional regulations have been arranged for candidates who passed a part of their examination in or before 1922. Candidates who have already been recognized by the Board of Education as qualified instructors and have served a period of three years in a school or centre may enter for the Certificate Examination without having previously taken the Preliminary Examination.[1]

These changes are on the whole received with approval by Handicraft Teachers, though there is a feeling that the academic side of the future teacher's qualifications may be unduly stressed at the expense of the craft side. A prominent member of the National Association of Manual Training Teachers (an association which has recently changed both its title and its form) considers that the effect of the new regulations will be ' to close the door partially, if not entirely, against the aspiring young craftsman . . . not an unmixed blessing, as he brought the sense of reality into the school, and he was, despite many statements to the contrary, more open to new educational influences than the average class teacher '. High technical qualifications must not, he thinks, be sacrificed, and he considers that craft work carried to a high level is much more truly educative than a training of the more generalized kind given to the student in the ordinary Training College. Others fear lest the requirements of the new examinations should prove too definite, and lest

[1] *B. of E. Circulars*, No. 1161 (May 1920); Nos. 1177, 1216, and 1251 (Feb. 1922).

men of more varied attainments who would make excellent teachers should be ruled out. This might, they suggest, be avoided by allowing a choice of subjects.

Provision for Training. Facilities for the training of teachers of Handicraft are of four kinds. Provision has been made for instruction in a number of Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers, the London County Council maintains one institution which ranks as a Training College for Handicraft Teachers, Education Authorities have from time to time provided classes for teachers in their service, and finally Vacation Courses have been arranged by various bodies in a number of convenient centres.[1]

For the student in the ordinary Training College for Elementary Teachers a certain amount of Handwork is included as a part of the course in the Principles and Practice of Teaching. He is required to familiarize himself sufficiently with it to enable him to illustrate his lessons in the ordinary school subjects. All the newer Colleges and most of the older ones, too, have a Handwork room, and some offer facilities to students who wish to obtain definite qualifications for teaching Handicraft or to specialize in some form of Handwork as part of their course. Such are, for example, the Diocesan Training College at Exeter and the Barry (South Wales) Training College for Women Students. In the latter College the scheme of training has gradually developed in range and purpose, and to-day students carry out craft work in Bookbinding and Lettering, Jewellery and Enamelling, Lacemaking, Woodwork, Pottery, Weaving and Dressmaking. Furthermore, the history of the rise of a particular craft and its practice is sometimes undertaken by individual students as a basis for a thesis at the end of the training course.

The Shoreditch Technical Institute, maintained by the London County Council, has for some years provided a complete course of education and training for teachers of Handicraft. The first two years are a period of Pupil Teachership, and the course is designed to prepare students for the Preliminary Examination for the Elementary Teachers' Certificate, as well as to give

[1] Students in Ministry of Labour Training Colleges for ex-Service men have also specialized in Handicraft (see ch. xiv, p. 354 et seq).

preliminary training in practical subjects. At the age of eighteen successful candidates pass into what is known as the Training College for a two-year course in preparation for the Final Certificate Examination of the Board of Education. The training is intended not merely to enable the student to qualify as a Certificated Teacher, but 'to develop in every way technical and handicraft ability so that a man so trained would be able to devote special attention to the Handicraft and allied subjects in a school'.

Classes provided for teachers during the winter months by Local Education Authorities present no special features, and need not detain us. A few Authorities go further and provide Vacation Courses in Handwork. Such, for example, are the Kent Local Education Authority's Summer School at Folkestone, and the Barry School run by the Glamorgan Education Committee. Most active of all in this direction has been the Educational Handwork Association. For many years it has organized Holiday Courses for Teachers at Scarborough and other centres. For example, in 1921, Courses were held at Scarborough, Southport, St. Anne's-on-Sea, Falmouth, and Brecon, and instruction was provided in many forms of Handwork and allied subjects. For the convenience of students examinations are held and the syllabuses and general requirements of the Board of Examinations for Educational Handwork have been adopted for the purpose. These examinations, however, are not recognized by the Board of Education.

It is not too much to assert that Summer Schools have proved by far the most effective means of developing a right attitude towards and an enthusiasm for Educational Handwork among teachers. The guidance of experts, exceptional facilities for practical work, interchange of ideas among students, together with a vigorous social life, have been the main factors contributing to their success. Without them, there would hardly have been so rapid a growth of a considered opinion among teachers on Handwork questions, nor the steady advance along educational lines of which the latest phase is to be seen in the changes to which we have already referred.

Looking forward into the future, educationists consider that the present examination arrangements should only remain in

operation so long as the Acting Teachers' Certificate Examination is continued by the Board of Education, and that the ultimate aim should be to provide the necessary supply of teachers by means of a few officially recognized Training Colleges for specialist Teachers of Handicraft, or by making adequate provision in the ordinary Training Colleges for Teachers who wish to specialize in this subject. Probably the solution will be found along both these lines, for whereas the ordinary Training Colleges could provide Teachers competent to deal with Handwork in the Elementary Schools to which they are attached, special Colleges would be needed for training instructors of older scholars and of students in Training Colleges, where more advanced teaching on craft lines is required.

The President of the National Association of Manual Training Teachers in his inaugural address at the Annual Conference at Loughborough in 1921 suggested developments of the former kind. 'Teachers must not', he urged, 'rest satisfied with present achievement, but seek by experiment and research to explore all the possibilities in their special department of education. . . . The Manual Teachers' Association looked forward to a College of Handwork of University rank, for the training of the ideal Handicraft Teacher, the combination of scholar, craftsman, and gentleman.'[1] Since these words were spoken the Association has changed the form of its organization. At the 1922 Conference it was unanimously decided to seek incorporation as the Institute of Handicraft Teachers, with a view to furthering the introduction of practical instruction as an essential part of the curriculum in all types of schools, and enlisting the active interest of the general public. Of particular interest is the proposal for the formation of a College of Handicraft in connexion with which it is hoped to conduct investigations and to evolve the best method of training teachers. For membership of such a College a high standard of professional qualifications would be required, and it is hoped that eventually membership might rank for salary purposes as equivalent to a University Degree.[2]

Teachers of Physical Training. Facilities for the training of

[1] *The Times Educational Supplement*, 7 April 1921.
[2] *Schoolmaster*, 29 April 1922.

specialist teachers of Physical Training are largely due to private enterprise. The first College for this purpose was opened at Dartford in 1885. Others followed at various dates, and to-day there are about twelve institutions providing complete courses and fitting their students for recognition as qualified teachers. All are residential institutions providing accommodation in hostels for from 50 to 100 students. The Liverpool School is rather larger, and accommodates 150 students. With two exceptions these Colleges are private institutions: the exceptions being the Chelsea Training College, one of the Departments of the South-Western Polytechnic, and the Physical Training Department of the Sheffield City Training College, the only Physical Training College for men.[1]

Two Examining Bodies have played a large part in determining the character of the instruction given to students—the Ling Association which deals with the Swedish system, and the British Association for Physical Training. Both Associations issue Diplomas, candidates for which must have had three years training in a recognized College and possess examination qualifications of Matriculation or School Leaving Certificate standard. The British Association also holds an examination for what is known as an Elementary School Teacher's Drill Certificate, which covers the same ground as the instruction given in Elementary Training Colleges or in Special Classes for Acting Teachers.[2]

Following the lines laid down by these Associations (which are largely composed of Teachers of Physical Training), most of the Colleges accept only candidates of eighteen years of age, or over, physically fit, and able to produce satisfactory evidence of a good secondary education. The first term is in several Colleges regarded as probationary, and the curriculum includes instruction in the Theory and Practice as well as in the teaching of the Gymnastics of the particular system studied, Anatomy, Physiology, Hygiene, and Remedial Work, together with sports of all kinds. Elocution and Educational Theory figure also in

[1] The cost of a year's training at the Women's Colleges ranges from £120 to £160. For men at Sheffield the cost is about £120. Of this only £26 is charged to the student, the remainder being met by grants from the Board of Education and from the local rates.

[2] For details see the prospectuses of the Associations.

the syllabuses of most schools. At Southport, and more particularly at Sheffield, some study of the Board of Education syllabus [1] is included; the course at Sheffield lasts for one year only, and is intended primarily for Graduates and Trained Certificated Teachers who wish to take up work as Organizers or Supervisors of instruction in Elementary and Continuation Schools. Practice in teaching is obtained in schools in the locality, in evening classes, play centres, boys' and girls' clubs, and in classes held in the College gymnasium.[2] The students of the Anstey College, Birmingham, attend the University for the practical Anatomy Course, and at Sheffield similar arrangements are made for Anatomy and Physiology. In a number of Colleges students are prepared for outside examinations in particular subjects, such as, for example, the Examination of the Royal Sanitary Institute in Hygiene, of the St. John Ambulance Association in First Aid, and for the Diplomas of the Royal Life Saving Society. In addition to the certificates thus obtained by students, practically every College issues its own Certificate or Diploma at the end of the course, and the Diplomas of certain Colleges entitle the holder to membership of the Ling Association without further examination.

Students who have been trained at these Colleges find employment in many parts of the world, in Training Colleges, as Organizers under Local Education Authorities, in Secondary and Private Schools, and in private gymnasia.

Two institutions have a special interest and significance for the future, the Sheffield Training College Physical Training Department and the Dalcroze School of Eurhythmics. The Department at Sheffield embodies in a practical form the idea of specialization for Training Colleges to which we have already referred. It originated in 1918 with the provision of Short Courses designed to equip ex-Service men who had acted as Physical Training Instructors in the army for work in connexion with Continuation Schools, as full-time Instructors or Organizers of Physical Training under Local Education Authorities, and as

[1] First issued in 1902, revised in 1909, and again in 1919. Instruction in Physical Training has since 1909 been controlled by the Medical Department of the Board of Education.

[2] The Liverpool College students are trained as officers in the Girl Guide movement. Chelsea makes a speciality of Folk Dancing.

Physical Instructors and Games Masters in Secondary Schools.[1] This being so, provision is made in the course for a study of the outlines of Educational Organization, and of the organization of Physical Training and Games in all types of schools and educational institutions. The course throughout has been under the supervision of the Board of Education, which recognizes the certificate granted by the College on the completion of the course and the passing of the final examination conducted by the College staff. The students, about forty in number, and all men, are drawn from different parts of the country. They reside in some of the College hostels, and though their course is distinct from that for other students, they are expected to take part in the general life of the College. For practical work, schools and other institutions under the control of the Sheffield Education Committee are at their disposal.

The Dalcroze School of Eurhythmics represents an experiment of an entirely different kind. The Training Schools in London and Geneva, the former for women only, are private institutions, and provide a complete training in Dalcroze Eurhythmics in preparation for a Teacher's Certificate.[2] The highest qualification, known as a Diploma, can only be obtained after study at Geneva. Qualified teachers of Eurhythmics are at work in at least seven Training Colleges in this country and in an ever-increasing number of Secondary and Elementary Schools. The number of students applying for admission to the London School is far greater than can be provided for, and everything points to the system as likely to modify still further existing methods of teaching Physical Exercises and Music—for Eurhythmics or *Rhythmische Gymnastik*, as it is styled in Germany, is a combination of both. Moreover, the principle underlying the Dalcroze method has not yet been carried to its fullest possible application, and the system is still developing.

Vacation Courses in Physical Training for Teachers are arranged by the Ling Association for Specialist Teachers and by the Educational Handwork Association at Scarborough, the latter for Class Teachers wishing to make a special study of the

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1919–20, pp. 7–8.
[2] The full course is for three years.

subject.[1] Others have been arranged by Local Education Authorities at convenient centres, and, as with Handwork, have proved a great factor in encouraging a more enlightened and educational use of the prescribed syllabuses of instruction in the schools.

Teachers of Music and Art. Side by side with an appreciation of the importance of movement in education has arisen an increasing recognition of the value of Music and Art. With the academic qualifications of teachers of these subjects we are not here concerned. What is of interest and importance for us is the provision made for training in teaching as distinct from proficiency in the subject. Of recent years the need for this has been increasingly realized. The Music Teachers' Association, for example, has since its foundation in 1908 consistently emphasized the need for special preparation of this kind, and more recently the Teachers Registration Council has required specific training as one of the conditions to be fulfilled by Music Teachers, as by other specialists, before enrolment.

To meet the demand which has arisen, training courses are provided at the Royal Academy and at the Royal College of Music. A Training School for Music Teachers has been established in Marylebone (London) to 'provide a centre where those already engaged in teaching and those intending to become Teachers may gain the necessary practical experience in all that appertains to the Art of Teaching as distinct from the ordinary course of Musical Study'. Vacation Courses are also arranged by this School and by other organizations, the number of these being greater in 1922 than in any previous year.[2] There is also a Music Teachers' Training Department in Streatham Hill High School for Girls, and what is perhaps the most recent development and the forerunner of others of the same kind, a special course for the training of Teachers of Music in connexion with the Department of Music of University College, Southampton.

The training of Teachers of Art is under the more immediate control of the Board of Education. Prior to 1919–20 full

[1] Physical Training is a necessary part of the curriculum of all schools in receipt of grants from the Board of Education, and in Elementary Schools most of the instruction is given by Class Teachers.

[2] Summer courses of various kinds were held at St. Andrews, Edinburgh, Manchester, Liverpool, Oxford, London, and Bexhill.

Associateship of the Royal College of Art[1] was the highest qualification of this kind. This was obtained after following a special course embracing study in all the schools of the College —architecture, ornament and design, decorative painting, sculpture and modelling. A student qualifying in one only of these schools was granted what was known as the Schools Associateship. Since 1919, however, a somewhat different scheme has been in force. The student whose general education is sufficient, after obtaining his Diploma in one or other of the schools of the College may remain for a further year's post-diploma course in the Principles and Practice of Teaching as applied to Art, at the end of which he will sit for an examination, and, if successful, will have his diploma endorsed to that effect. He thus becomes qualified to act as Principal Teacher in any School of Art.

Prior to 1915 there were two other recognized qualifications for teaching this subject, the Art Master's Certificate and the Art Class Teacher's Certificate.[2] These were prepared for at Local Art Schools, and involved the completion of a number of works of art, as well as the obtaining of certificates in certain examinations held by the Board. Since that date, however, a revised scheme has been in force whereby the intending Art Teacher must follow a course of professional training, and pass an examination in the Principles of Teaching and School Management with special reference to Art, in addition to qualifying in Drawing and one other subject at the Board's examinations. Evidence of sufficient general education is also required of all candidates. For purposes of training nine Provincial Schools of Art had been recognized by 1919–20, and in July of the latter year eleven candidates sat for examination in the Principles and Practice of Teaching.[3]

Among other qualifications are the Teacher Artist Certificate of the Royal Drawing Society, the Secondary Teacher's Drawing Certificate of the Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations, and

[1] Maintained by the Board of Education. The School of Design established in 1837 was taken over by the Department of Practical Art founded in 1852 and renamed the National School of Art. This in 1896 became the Royal College of Art, one of the objects of which was to be the training of Art Teachers of both sexes. Balfour, op. cit., p. 255.

[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1913–14, p. 125.

[3] Ibid. 1919–20, p. 50.

the School Drawing Certificate for Teachers in Elementary Schools issued by the National Society of Art Masters. The first of these is granted on the successful passing of tests in Drawing, in the Theory of Teaching, and in teaching a class. The scheme of examination for the Oxford Certificate has been drawn up with the approval of the National Society of Art Masters, and before a certificate can be granted the student must produce evidence either of one year's training in the theory and practice of teaching in an approved institution, or of successful experience for not less than two years as an Art Teacher in a Secondary School.

The Art Teachers Training Department of the Clapham High School for Girls is of interest in this connexion. Here students may follow a Four-Year Course in preparation for the first two of the above Certificates, or, if they already possess the necessary qualifications in Art, may simply follow a year's course in the Theory and Practice of Teaching as applied to this subject. Instruction in Art is also provided for students who are attached to the Training Department for Junior School and Kindergarten Teachers, as well as for teachers holding the Board of Education Certificate who wish to follow a One-Year Course in Art.

Probably the main impression which the perusal of this chapter leaves on the mind of the reader is that of diversity, but in spite of this he will doubtless have discerned certain features common to several of the types of training we have described.

The first of these has already been noted. In each case (with the exception of the training of teachers of Art) the earliest facilities for training have been provided by voluntary effort: state-aid and state-regulation have arisen later, but are only found to any extent in connexion with Domestic Science Training Schools: Kindergarten and Physical Training Colleges are still for the most part independent institutions.

With an increase in state regulation and control, and partly as a result of it, has gone an increasing tendency towards uniformity. The training of Domestic Subjects Teachers, for example, has become in certain respects like that prescribed for the Elementary Teacher. In other parts of the field, where we

find less regulation by the Central Authority, the influence of the Teachers Registration Council has of recent years become a factor of increasing importance, operating in all cases in favour of longer courses of preparation, better planned and more suitable for intending teachers.

Training courses for Kindergarten and Special Subjects Teachers, like those for Secondary Teachers, demonstrate the value of initiative and variety. From another point of view they provide a distinct contribution to the general problem of teacher training, inasmuch as in them we have an example of systems of training and certification built up and maintained by teachers. Any danger which may have existed in the past that such an arrangement would encourage a continuance of low standards will be removed under the steadily increasing influence of the Teachers Registration Council. Standards of education and of training are rising, and though schemes for the future which have been formulated by teachers of Domestic Subjects and of Handicraft may seem ambitious, they are nevertheless indicative of high ideals, and are evidence, too, of a growing conviction that the professional training of all teachers is the concern of the Universities. They suggest, moreover, that these institutions should approach the task by enlarging the scope of their organization and curricula rather than by attempting to impose on all teachers alike the courses of study which they (the Universities) have hitherto been able or willing to arrange.

VIII

THE FURTHER INSTRUCTION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

Now that we have followed the intending teacher through the various stages of preparation for his career, it may seem at first sight unnecessary to dwell on the subject we have chosen for discussion in the present chapter. The Elementary Teacher, it may be urged, is, after training and certification, fully qualified for service in any capacity in any Elementary School, and the Secondary Teacher, likewise, may pass into service and continue without further qualification. Twenty years ago, indeed, there would have been little to note in this connexion, but to-day provision for further instruction and training is being increasingly made and cannot be ignored.

There are several reasons for this development. Certification, so far at least as teachers in Public Elementary Schools are concerned, has two aspects, the one administrative, the other educational. From an administrative standpoint the certificate is a licence to teach, granted after compliance with certain conditions of health, training, and examination. Its value educationally depends entirely upon the quality and the scope of the teacher's preparation, and it should by now be sufficiently clear that some supplementing of this is needed. Moreover, educational theory and practice are steadily developing; there is an increasing tendency to question the common assumption that experience will of itself suffice to make good any deficiencies in previous preparation; and, finally, teachers themselves and their employers are coming to realize the necessity for refreshing and increasing knowledge and renewing ideals, if stagnation and deterioration are to be avoided.

Our subject may conveniently be discussed under two headings. First we may consider the question of probation after professional training has been completed, and then we may pass

on to give a brief account of the provision made in various ways for the instruction and training of teachers in service.

Probation. The attitude of the Board of Education towards the certification of Elementary Teachers during the past twenty years serves to illustrate the dual nature of the question and is of interest in connexion with probation. So long as the Pupil Teacher system in its earlier form prevailed, the intending teacher served a very practical apprenticeship, and became thoroughly acquainted with the everyday work of the school, so that by the time he left College he was, according to the ideas then prevailing, a useful member of the school staff. Nevertheless a probationary period was required in one form or another before a so-called Parchment Certificate was issued. Thus, to go no further back than 1903, the Code of Regulations for that year stated that 'Candidates for Certificates must . . . be examined, and undergo probation by actual service in school. . . . A Certificated Teacher, in order to obtain a Parchment Certificate, must have been employed for not less than 18 months as a Certificated Teacher in recorded service . . . and must have obtained a favourable report from an Inspector.' Teachers who had been allowed a third year of training might obtain their Parchment Certificate after one year's employment, as above defined.[1] This provision continued in force to 1908, when two important changes were made, the first of which we have already had occasion to notice in another connexion, but which also concerns us here. The declaration of intention to serve in an Elementary School, hitherto required of students entering College, was replaced by a legally enforceable undertaking binding them to serve for a specified period in approved schools receiving aid from Government grants, and at the same time the Board decided to discontinue the practice by which the issue of their Certificate was made conditional on the completion of a prescribed period of service in Elementary Schools.[2]

Apparently the main consideration underlying the change from the earlier system was the fact that, owing to the introduction of a legally enforceable agreement, it was no longer

[1] *B. of E. Provisional Code of Regulations for Public Elementary Schools*, 1903, Arts. 55 and 63.

[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1906–7, p. 32.

necessary to withhold certification until some return in service had been made for the public funds expended upon the student.

Recently, however, owing to the urgent demand for economy, the Board of Education have decided to cut down the staffs of schools and employ teachers of lower qualifications where possible, with the result that a considerable number of students who complete their Training College Course this year are likely to remain without posts for some time, whilst the prospects of their successors obtaining employment will be seriously diminished. A return to the earlier policy had for some time been under consideration, and in 1922, when the enforcement of a legal undertaking had obviously become out of the question, the Board again replaced it by a declaration of intention to serve in an approved school.[1]

These are purely administrative considerations, but that the Board have not been unmindful of the educational aspect of the question is clear from a circular issued in 1920 to Local Education Authorities.[2] H.M. Inspectors were instructed to make a series of inquiries into the posts held by teachers fresh from Training Colleges, with a view to ascertaining how far the character of the training received by students was understood by the Authorities responsible for their employment. They found that many Authorities, Managers, and Teachers inadequately appreciated the aims and the practice of the Training College of the present day. In the circular, therefore, the Board explain the increasingly specialized character of the training now given, adding :

' It will be evident that students will come from Training Colleges very variously equipped. . . . The Board fully realize that it is impossible always to place a young student, even the most promising and best qualified, at once in a post in which his abilities may be used to the utmost. The first year may be fairly considered by all parties as a year of probation, during which the young teacher may " find his feet " in school (an extremely difficult thing to do during his college training, even under the best system of school practice) and may test what he has previously learnt both in the College lecture room and in school practice by application to experience. . . . The Training Colleges under present conditions cannot undertake to send out

[1] *Circ. 1271*, and *B. of E. Training of Teachers Amending Regulations* (No.3), 1922.

[2] *Circ. 1176*, 23 August 1920.

students capable of meeting any and every emergency, but they can and do send out young men and women with a taste and liking for teaching and with some vision and ambitions, all of which are too easily prone to fade under discouragement.'

With the general tenor of this Circular Training Authorities are in substantial agreement, for the lack of co-ordination between school and college and the resulting misplacement of students is one of their greatest grievances.[1] For them the problem is an educational one, but the Authorities responsible for the staffing of schools, who are concerned mainly with administration might, if they so desired, answer the educational exhortations of the Board by pointing to its administrative provisions which grant what is practically complete qualification to the newly trained teacher. It may be argued that the Student Teacher year, with its provision for practical experience in school, and the 'school practice' of Training College days should ensure sufficient training and familiarity with ordinary school conditions to make the teacher of real service on leaving College. Unfortunately, it is only in exceptional cases that the Student Teacher year is of real value, and in practice the majority of students enter the Schools as Certificated Teachers without having had any opportunity of testing their teaching powers under normal school conditions. This is equally true of the majority of those who pass through a course of training in preparation for service in Secondary Schools.

So long as the present system of preliminary and professional training continues for Elementary Teachers, and indeed under any system of training which does not make adequate provision for practical experience of a prolonged and responsible character, some form of probation should be required. Either a period of responsible teaching should be definitely included as a complementary and necessary part of professional training, or final certification should be withheld until a period of satisfactory service has been completed in the schools. A probationary period is not entirely a thing of the past in this country. Domestic Subjects Teachers are required to serve two years and to receive a favourable report from H.M. Inspector before the Diploma issued to them from the Training School is finally endorsed.[2]

[1] See p. 118.

[2] *Supra*, p. 163.

When we turn to Scotland we find a probationary system well established. In the general prospectus issued by the Scottish National Committee for the Training of Teachers the arrangements are briefly explained:[1] 'On satisfactorily completing a course of training for the Teacher's Certificate, students receive (from the Training Authority) a Training Record stating their attainments in the various subjects, and (from the Scottish Education Department) a Probation Certificate. The latter confers during probation the status of Certificated Teacher. Holders of the Probation Certificate are regarded as being on probation for not less than two complete years of actual service in schools under the inspection of the Department. On the successful completion of the period of probationary service the Department will grant the Teacher's Certificate, which is to be regarded as the final recognition of the holder as a Certificated Teacher. In like manner final recognition as a Teacher of a Higher Subject is granted only after the satisfactory completion of a probationary period of at least two years as a teacher of the subject in an Intermediate or Secondary School under the inspection of the Department. Similar conditions attach to final recognition as a Teacher of a Special Subject.'

In practice the student during probation is under the joint supervision of the Head of the school in which he is working and H.M. Inspector of Schools. Upon the completion of the probationary period the Inspector, after consideration of reports received from the Head Teacher, and after such investigations as he may deem it necessary to make, may recommend the issue of the final certificate, the extension of the probationary period, or the withdrawal of recognition, but in the latter case his recommendation must be confirmed by a Chief Inspector after special inquiry.[2]

A period of service as a teacher is obligatory for all students who have been in receipt of grants in aid of training: the length of this varies with the amount of assistance received. Forms are issued on which students are requested to record their

[1] National Committee for the Training of Teachers in Scotland. *Prospectus of General Information*, March 1922, par. 5, p. 10.

[2] Education (Scotland) 1922. *Regulations for the Preliminary Education, Training, and Certification of Teachers*, Art. 50.

service in school after leaving College. These are to be forwarded to the Director of Studies on appointment, at each change of appointment, at the end of each completed year of service, and on the teacher's withdrawal from the teaching profession before the period of obligatory service is completed. Each time the form is forwarded to the Centre the recorded service is noted, and this continues until the obligatory service has been completed or the teacher has left the profession.

Two questions suggest themselves in this connexion. On the one hand we may ask whether the aims and the products of the Training Centres in Scotland are such as to render a probationary period more necessary than in this country, and on the other hand we may seek to know something of the opinions of those who have experience of the system as to the value of the period and the best way of using it. Scottish educationists are asking similar questions, and it is because the answers are not yet forthcoming that our treatment of these points must be both brief and tentative. A partial answer to the first question may be obtained from the highly instructive and interesting reports of the Chief Inspector of Training Colleges for Scotland, the most recent of which (that for 1919–20) touches upon this topic.[1] After discussing the general character of the training given he adds: 'Not knowledge, not skill, so much as a missionary spirit is what the Training Colleges should seek to communicate.' With more specific reference to the practical training of students in teaching he continues:

'In judging of the particular measure of success attained in all this training it is wise to bear in mind the legitimate nature of the product. The training institutions undertake to supply knowledge and skill in the use of approved methods of teaching along with a growing power and confidence in the management of classes. Very little, however, of the practice the students have obtained in teaching has been under conditions that make it really responsible. Aptitude and skill in the conduct of individual lessons are open at this stage to judgement, but conclusions respecting staying power and the ability to keep a class, from day to day and from week to week, attentive, industrious, orderly, and progressive, can refer only to promise. The real test comes later, at the end of the probationary period,

[1] Scottish Education Department, *Training of Teachers. Report*, 1919-20, Section III, 6, p. 21.

when the actual results of responsible teaching can be brought forward as evidence. . . . Various schemes for introducing responsible practice in teaching have from time to time been considered; but, apart from providing periods for continuous practice, where opportunity for doing responsible work may occasionally arise, no scheme has hitherto been found sufficiently practicable to warrant its adoption. Responsible teaching is in fact opposed to supervision. A similar experience is met with in the preparation for certain other professions, as, for example, in the training for Medicine and the Church. Wherever, indeed, the material to be dealt with is not dead matter but living persons, some measure of faith is necessary to strengthen the assurance that the good " promise " will steadily go forward to full fruition.' [1]

Thus the Scottish system does not claim any more than our own to send forth into the schools men and women capable of meeting any and every emergency, and whatsoever justification exists for a probationary period in the one case exists equally in the other. It is important therefore to examine the system in the light of current opinion.

Among the tasks undertaken by the Scottish National Committee for the Training of Teachers has been a review of the curricula of Training Centres and Colleges.[2] In the course of this review the Committee issued a short questionnaire to representative and experienced educationists with the object of ascertaining their opinion of the newly trained teacher. A glance at the questions will show the lines upon which the inquiry has proceeded; [3] the main point which concerns us here is that in most

[1] Scottish Education Department, *Training of Teachers. Report*, 1919–20, Section III, 6, pp. 23, 24.

[2] National Committee for the Training of Teachers in Scotland, *Report of Central Executive Committee*, 1920–21, p. 9, also *Proceedings of Central Executive and Special Committee with reference to Revision of the Curricula of the Training Colleges*, May 1923.

[3] Q. 1. Do you consider that the students now issuing from the Training Colleges have reached a sufficient standard of general education?

Q. 2. Do you find that they possess an adequate knowledge of, and interest in, the Principles of Teaching, particularly Psychology in its educational aspect?

Q. 3. Do they, in your experience, give evidence of having been sufficiently instructed in the best methods of teaching such of the subjects as are included in the Primary School curriculum?

Q. 4. Does their work in its early stages show that while students they have had a reasonable amount of practice in teaching under careful supervision?

of the replies which have been received emphasis is placed on the need for continuing and rendering effective the existing probationary period on account of the practical difficulties in the way of ensuring sufficient continuity and responsibility in teaching during a training course. Many Head Teachers in Scotland take a pride in assisting to train those who are to carry on the traditions of the profession, and their desire to continue to do this is both wholesome and natural, for under favourable conditions such further training is beneficial to Head Teacher and probationer alike. The serious defects in the present system, due mainly to administrative difficulties, are recognized on all hands. The shortage of teachers, the difficulty of staffing small schools in rural areas, and considerations of cost, all are pressing problems, and bear directly upon this question of probation. From the Training College point of view there are difficulties of another kind. For example, there is the danger of the probationer falling into the hands of Head Teachers who neither know nor wish to know any methods other than their own, and whose one aim appears to be to damp the enthusiasm and check the initiative of the novice. Often, too, though Head Teachers may have the will and the sympathy, they lack the time to devote to any further training, and in the battle with difficult school conditions the less courageous of the newly trained students tend to fall back on imitation either of methods by which they themselves have been taught or those which they see most frequently adopted by fellow teachers. Experience may give them facility in the performance of the daily routine, but may totally fail to foster that freshness of outlook and ability to modify accepted practice which are the characteristics of the live teacher.

These difficulties must not be minimized, but are not insurmountable. To be a success a system of probation must be based on a very real co-operation between the employing Authority, the schools, and the Training College. Local Education Authorities would have to be prepared during the probationary period not to place undue strain upon the young teacher. The schools to which probationers were sent should have as Head Teachers men and women able to deal sympathetically with the hopes and ideals as well as the inexperience

of the newly trained teacher, while the Training College or Centre should in turn be staffed with people able to appreciate the difficulty of applying methods under the less favourable conditions of the schools. It should not be impossible to evolve an arrangement whereby the teacher, after service in the schools, would return for a while to his Training College or Centre, there to discuss his experiences with fellow teachers and tutors, and to review them in the renewed light of those principles and methods which formed the main portion of his equipment when first he passed out into the schools. This opportunity no one would welcome more than the teachers themselves; and such an arrangement, if obligatory, would go far to prevent that disillusionment and deterioration which constitute what may without exaggeration be described as the tragedy of many a teacher's life.

Arrangements for further Instruction. The movement in the direction of providing additional instruction for teachers in service is connected now in many ways with a wider movement for the education of adults, and arose in the years when the Department of Science and Art at South Kensington first developed an elaborate system of examinations in Art, Science, and Technology, success in which was recognized by the Education Department as the necessary qualification for the teaching of those subjects, particularly in Evening Schools.

From these beginnings developments were slow but sure. The possession of supplementary certificates gave the holder an advantage in seeking promotion, and was essential if the teacher wished to augment his income by evening work. Teachers in towns and their vicinity attended classes at Technical Institutes in order to obtain the necessary instruction, and with the introduction into the schools of newer forms of art-work,[1] and of practical subjects,[2] Municipal Technical Institutes and County Technical Instruction Committees found it advisable to establish special classes in the evenings or on Saturday mornings. When by the Act of 1902 a more unified system for the local administration of education was established the scope of these classes was extended. About the same time similar efforts were being made by voluntary organizations, to some of which we have already

[1] e.g. Brushwork, Clay-modelling.

[2] e.g. Modelling in Paper and Cardboard, Woodwork, Gardening, and Cookery.

referred; and finally, the Board of Education itself commenced the organization of short courses for teachers which have been continued each year, and gradually extended in scope.

The many forms of provision for the further instruction of teachers to-day may be variously classified, but for our purpose it will be more helpful to group them according to the purpose which they serve rather than the Authority providing them, in spite of the fact that such a classification is not exhaustive, nor are the groups mutually exclusive. There are three main types:[1]

1. Courses providing instruction in particular subjects included in the school curriculum, or subjects which are likely to be helpful to teachers in their work.
2. Refresher Courses.
3. Courses designed to prepare the teacher for examinations which he must pass if he wishes to improve his qualifications.

Among the oldest established courses in particular subjects are those arranged by Local Education Authorities and such voluntary organizations as the Educational Handwork Association in the newer subjects of the Elementary School curriculum —Nature Study, Handwork, Gardening, and Physical Training. Local Education Authorities usually confine attendance to teachers in their employment, and the classes take place at convenient centres either in the evenings or on Saturday mornings. Instruction is usually provided free of charge, and a grant made towards the students' travelling expenses. As a rule, a small entrance fee is charged, with an additional payment in certain cases for the provision of necessary materials. Subject to compliance with regulations as to the number of hours of instruction, these classes may be aided by grants from the Board of Education. A few Authorities—particularly those which maintain Training Colleges of their own—go further and provide Vacation Courses. Such are, for example, the Glamorgan Education Committee, who provide a Summer School at Barry in Handwork of every kind and for every period of school life; the West Riding Committee who provide at Bingley Training College a general course for teachers in all types of schools, with

[1] Courses which are provided for the advanced study of Education at Universities might be included here as a fourth type, but these can be more conveniently dealt with in a later chapter (see pp. 372–3).

specialized courses for those who wish to make a study of some particular subject. Here, as well as in a similar course organized by the Kent Education Committee at Folkestone, there is a definite attempt to give teachers opportunities of studying new methods of teaching, as well as to impart specific knowledge in particular subjects. The North Wales Training College Committee also provide Courses in various subjects at Bangor Normal College, and Brighton Education Committee provide facilities at the Municipal Training College for a Two-Week Course in Psychology (general, applied, and experimental), including a consideration of the much-discussed Mental Tests.[1]

Closely akin to one or other of these are the Vacation Courses organized by Universities and University Colleges as well as by the authorities of at least one Voluntary Training College. For example, Oxford University provides each year a Vacation Course in Education, and biennially a Vacation Course in Geography, Nottingham University College arranges courses in Psychology, English, Social History, and Practical Geography, while the highly successful courses at Derby Training College instituted in 1915 were attended by more than 500 students in 1920. Here in the first few years provision was made for the study of Handwork subjects, but to-day the curriculum has been extended to include such subjects as Eurhythmics, Physical Training, English Literature, and Experimental Psychology.

A glance at the Table of Summer Courses in England and Wales issued by the Board of Education each year shows that a number of voluntary organizations make similar provision in connexion with a wide range of subjects.[2] Indeed a vacation school is becoming a recognized form of activity of every educational or semi-educational association, and though these are not confined to teachers they are largely attended by them. A mere glance through the Board's list will give some idea of the range of subjects studied—Latin, Mining, Teaching of Mentally Defective Children, Sociology, the Dalton Plan (individual methods in teaching), Folk Dancing, Oceanography, Eurhythmics—are but a few of the subjects figuring in this list of Summer Schools and Courses, a list, which, as the Board intimates, is not complete.

[1] This course is arranged by the Brighton and Hove Higher Education Council, a purely voluntary organization.

[2] *B. of E. Table of Summer Courses in England and Wales*, 1922, 1923.

The length of these courses varies from one week to a month, and the usual arrangement is for the majority of the lectures to be given in the mornings and perhaps early evenings, leaving the afternoon free for sport, private study, or excursions. The latter part of the evening is often devoted to meetings of a more general character and of a freer type. The more successful of the schools aim definitely at a healthy corporate life, and provide ample opportunity for discussion both in and out of class. What we have already said as to the value of such courses in stimulating thought and study on the part of the students, as well as experiment in the schools, may again be emphasized here. By reviving the teacher's enthusiasm even more than by adding to his knowledge they make for improvement, and the more successful they are in the former direction the more closely do they become akin to those which we have included in our second group as Refresher Courses.

Courses of the second type are a comparatively recent innovation, and the name is a sufficient indication of the purpose which they are intended to serve. A short account of one of them will bring out the chief features better than a more general description. In the spring of 1920 the Kent Education Committee approached the authorities of Goldsmiths' College (London) with a request that they might send to the College for four weeks twenty teachers who had been serving in Elementary Schools for a long period, in some cases as much as twenty-five years. Some were trained, others were not, and most of them came from remote rural schools. The arranging of the course was left to the College staff, a step wholly justified by the result. Each week's work comprised lectures and demonstrations by members of the College staff, as well as visits to selected London schools and to places of educational interest. The lectures dealt with such matters as ' The Educative Process ' and ' Problems of Curricula and Discipline ', as well as with the most approved methods of teaching the principal subjects of the school curriculum. In all cases ample opportunity was afforded for discussion. A little Educational History was introduced, and possible developments in connexion with the Act of 1918 were considered. Visits to schools occupied two days in each week, and were arranged with a view to enabling teachers

to see some special feature of an ordinary Elementary School (as, for example, the teaching of a particular subject or an experiment in organization), or a special type of institution, Open Air School, School for Mentally Defectives, or Nursery School. Among the places of educational interest visited were the L.C.C. Education Library and the British Museum, while advice as to the most helpful way of using any spare time was freely given and gladly followed.

Encouraged by the success of the experiment, the Kent Education Committee arranged a second and similar course for teachers in infant schools, and but for financial pressure further provision along these lines would have continued.

At first sight there seems to be little in these courses to differentiate them from any of those we have previously described, but a closer examination reveals certain distinctive features. First and foremost, the teachers came to the College in term time, and became to all intents and purposes students of the College for the time being. Special lectures were arranged for them and a separate Common Room assigned for their use, but in many ways they were able to share in the social and recreational life of the younger students, and even to attend some of the ordinary College lectures. Secondly, the lecturers throughout the course dwelt on principles rather than details, and aimed at arousing the students to a critical discussion of these, and of their application in teaching, in the light of long years of experience. Thirdly, both lecturers and teachers regarded the time as a unique opportunity of preparing for the future: full use was made of the College library, and students were directed to helpful and recent books on those subjects in which they had special interest. From each of these points of view teachers found the course distinctly 'refreshing', and the residence of most of the students in College hostels enhanced this effect.

The value of such courses is difficult to estimate, and at best can only be expressed in very general terms. The College staff aimed at giving a wider outlook and inspiration, and in the schools there are already signs that their efforts were not unsuccessful. The teachers throughout were keen and responsive, and extracts from an account given by one of them (a Head

Teacher) summarize very conveniently the views of a number of others who attended the course:

'The free interchange of opinion was valuable . . .

'I was able to get an idea of the work done in London Elementary Schools. This was very useful to a teacher who has few opportunities of seeing the work in schools other than the one in which he is engaged. . . .

'I came into contact with men and women who in special schools have to face greater difficulties than I have. I shall remember this when I am tempted to magnify the difficulty of my own work. . . .

'I gained a number of new ideas as to methods and organization and broadened my outlook on school work generally. . . .'

The opportunity which the course afforded of discussing difficulties with lecturers and fellow teachers was greatly appreciated, and more than one teacher who attended has testified to the great value of the informal discussions which went on during free times. But the real significance of the course was that it succeeded in effecting something deeper and more fundamental than a mere interchange of ideas, valuable though this could not fail to be. To quote a Head Teacher who attended the first course: 'Ideals of work were revived which in the daily round are so liable to be forgotten . . . (and) the course sent us back with renewed faith in our work and increased energy to solve the problems awaiting us.'

In the same category as these courses at Goldsmiths' College we may place the Short Courses for Rural Teachers, both men and women, which have been organized by the Board of Education each year since 1919.[1] These are essentially subject courses, the teachers being divided into groups of fifty, according to the subject which they wish to study. Thus, for example, in the past year (1922) English, History, Geography, and Rural Science were the subjects studied. The students taking the History, Geography, and Rural Science Courses were accommodated in various Colleges in Oxford; the English group was housed at Salisbury Training College. For these courses a certain number of rural teachers are nominated by the respective County Education Authorities after consultation with the local Inspectors

[1] *B. of E. Reports*, 1919–20, par. 204, p. 79; 1920–1, par. 144, p. 57.

of the Board of Education, the particular counties varying from year to year. The courses last for two weeks, and are arranged very much in the same way as other Vacation Courses. The general organization has throughout been in the hands of selected members of the Board of Education Inspectorate, who have also played an important part in what has proved an exceedingly valuable feature of each course—group work on tutorial class lines. Here teachers have an opportunity of getting to grips with the problems connected with the teaching of their subject, and to begin an interchange of views which continues in the college quadrangle, common room, or dining hall. Since their inception these courses have been steadily becoming more practical in character. Much of the lecturing, for example, is in the hands of specialists on the Board of Education inspectorial staff, and fewer outside lecturers are now included in the programme than was the case in the first year or two. Otherwise the essentials of the courses remain unchanged, and we may justly rejoice that among their various economies the Board have seen fit to refrain from a complete abandonment of this particular activity.

Similar courses have been arranged for Secondary Teachers, also on specialist lines.[1] From the point of view of organization the Central Authority is well placed, but, excellent though most of the courses have been, too great a concentration of the teaching in the hands of the Inspectorate may be accompanied by certain dangers. On the one hand the suggestibility of the teachers may be unduly heightened in the presence of those who are, as it were, in a position of authority over them, and consequently discussion may be hampered, and on the other hand too constant attention to the problems of school may hinder that enlarging of his mental horizon which is the supreme need of the teacher. It is a testimony to the wisdom and restraint of the inspectors who have acted as lecturers and group leaders, that on the whole these dangers have hitherto been avoided and the teachers sent back to their work with renewed zeal.

The future will see an extension of courses of the Refresher type. That less ambitious efforts on similar lines can be equally

[1] *B. of E. Reports*, 1919–20, par. 201 ; 1920–1, par. 142.

successful is shown by the annual week-end conferences organized for some fifty rural teachers by the Oxfordshire Education Committee at Keble College, Oxford. For city and municipal authorities the problem is simpler, and the most progressive have for some years arranged educational conferences and lectures for teachers in their service. These are exceedingly valuable and are greatly appreciated. Indeed, one trained teacher says of the lectures arranged by the London Education Committee, that because of them and of the Committee's invaluable library she has learned far more of educational research and methods since leaving College than during her two years of professional training.

A recent addition to the list of Refresher Courses may perhaps be mentioned here as indicative of their increasing popularity. The City of London Vacation Course in Education, held for the first time in August 1922, was due to private enterprise, enterprise of which, as Professor John Adams, the Principal, pointed out at the opening meeting, the real justification was the willingness of teachers to learn and their desire for further training.[1] The 1922 Course lasted for a fortnight, and was attended by 450 teachers from all parts of Great Britain. In addition to a scheme of professional training worked out in a series of morning lectures by educational experts, there were daily addresses on natural science, literature, or politics by men eminent in these fields, and visits to places of interest in London under the guidance of expert lecturers. Liberality in the provision of 'good things', a wide choice of studies, and the unique advantages which London can offer are some of the special features which have contributed towards the success of this venture.

Courses of the third type, designed to assist teachers to improve their qualifications, are more numerous than others. Strictly speaking, they are not in place in a discussion of facilities for further training and instruction, but may more conveniently be described here than at any other stage, and will prepare the way for a consideration of the position of the unqualified teacher.

Arranged in descending order of qualification the various

[1] *The Times Educational Supplement*, 5 August 1922, p. 369.

grades of adult teachers serving in the schools are as follows :

In Elementary Schools.	*In Secondary Schools.*
Trained and Certificated: Graduate	Graduate: Trained
Trained and Certificated: Non-graduate	Graduate: Untrained
Certificated but Untrained	Non-graduate: Trained
Uncertificated	Non-graduate: Untrained
Supplementary	

To advance from one grade to the next above is a distinct financial and professional advantage to the Elementary Teacher, and in a Secondary School the non-graduate cannot attain to a position of responsibility, though in his case professional training is not as a rule regarded as essential. Provision for aiding teachers to improve their qualifications is, broadly speaking, of two kinds. Assistance may be given to the untrained teacher to enable him to pass through a course of training ; or, if he does not wish for professional training, he may be assisted by instruction or in other ways to prepare for some examination, success in which will bring the desired improvement in status. To the former category belong grants in aid of one-year courses for Certificated but untrained teachers, and of full two-year courses for Uncertificated Teachers who later in life wish to pass through a Training College. These courses have already been described,[1] and we may therefore pass on to the second kind of provision, namely, assistance in preparing for some examination.

Of the various grades of teacher two in particular stand most in need of assistance, viz. Uncertificated and Supplementary Teachers. The former are usually ex-Pupil Teachers or ex-Student Teachers who have not passed on to a Training College, and for whom the only hope of professional advancement lies in qualifying as Certificated Teachers by means of what is known as the Certificate Examination for Acting Teachers. The ranks of the latter are recruited to some extent from those young people who have failed to complete their period of Bursarship or Pupil Teachership by passing the required examination, but include also women who, though without educational qualifications, are considered by the powers that be to be competent

[1] Ch. iv and also ch. v (pp. 113–14).

to teach younger children. For all teachers of this class the only hope of promotion is by becoming candidates for the Preliminary Certificate Examination of the Board of Education or one of the examinations which are now accepted as its equivalent, and which entitle a teacher to recognition as Uncertificated.

The majority of Local Education Authorities make provision for the further instruction of one or other or both of these groups. The character of the assistance afforded varies according to the number of teachers concerned and the geographical difficulties of the area. When the numbers in a given area are not sufficient to justify the formation of a special class, neighbouring Authorities occasionally co-operate, or, failing this, individual teachers are encouraged to join an approved Correspondence Class and grants are made towards fees. The last-named expedient is frequently resorted to for teachers in rural areas, and in a few cases the Local Education Authority itself arranges Correspondence Classes. Thus, for example, in a recent year the West Sussex Authority arranged both one- and two-year courses for Monitresses and Supplementary Teachers, enrolling 19 for the former and 32 for the latter;[1] while the Staffordshire Education Committee between 1914 and 1920 made grants to 72 Supplementary Teachers, 16 of whom qualified as Uncertificated Teachers, and 44 grants to Uncertificated Teachers, of whom 12 qualified as Certificated Teachers.[2]

For the other grades of teacher special facilities are rarely provided by Local Education Authorities, but grants in aid are made by them to approved students at classes arranged by Universities, University Colleges, or other bodies providing facilities for advanced study.

Complete statistics showing the development and extent of the provision made under the various headings are not available. We have already referred to the list of Summer Schools published by the Board of Education, and successive annual reports give some idea of the increasing activity of the Central Authority. In 1901–2, 299 teachers attended short summer courses in Science and Art at South Kensington.[3] To these short courses

[1] West Sussex and Chichester Joint Education Committee, Draft Scheme under Education Act, 1918, p. 26.

[2] Staffordshire County Council Education Committee, Draft Scheme, p. 31.

[3] *B. of E. Report*, 1901–2, pp. 57, 60.

Saturday courses in Science were added in 1907–8;[1] and in 1916–17 the Board's activities were still further extended to include courses in French and English for Secondary teachers, Elementary Mathematics for London teachers, and Phonetics for Lecturers in Training Colleges.[2] In 1920–1, courses were still more numerous and varied, and the Board arranged eighteen courses for Secondary Teachers, four refresher courses for Rural Teachers, and two courses for Superintendents and Teachers of Domestic Science.[3] The total number of students in this particular year was 980, and it is significant that where applications were invited from teachers desirous of attending a class, the number of applicants was greatly in excess of the number of places available. Thus in 1916–17, for an English course at Cambridge for Secondary Teachers, there were 424 applicants for 60 places. In 1917–18, 563 students were selected from 1,689 applicants, and for the eighteen short courses mentioned as held in 1920–1, 745 students were selected from 1,671 applicants.

This same keenness on the part of teachers may be discerned also in the case of classes arranged by Local Education Authorities. Thus out of 7,000 Elementary Teachers employed by one Authority, 1,000 were during a given year in attendance at one or other of the courses of further instruction arranged for their benefit on Saturday mornings, in addition to a number in attendance at courses organized by other authorities, such as Universities and Training Colleges. Not all Local Education Authorities are equally keen in providing facilities of this kind; but since the 1918 Act the Board have made it clear that they regard this as part of the duty of an Authority, and by the end of 1919 the more progressive had already provided in their schemes for the gradual establishment of a comprehensive and well-planned system of further instruction. The urgent need for economy which has arisen since that date has arrested further development, but it will be of interest to note the extent of the proposals of one at least of these authorities. The Kent Education Committee, for example, in the scheme prepared for submission to the Board of Education under the Act of 1918

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1907–8, p. 81. [2] Ibid., 1916–17, p. 78.
[3] Ibid., 1920–1, p. 57. The Board also assisted two courses for teachers of Mentally Defective children.

contemplated the extension of their activities in this direction so as to include the provision of :

(*a*) Shorter courses of five types.

1. Refresher courses, short courses of lectures and demonstrations dealing with problems of school organization and method, designed to meet the needs of teachers in different types of schools.
2. Instructional courses in practical subjects: Physical Instruction, Domestic Subjects, Handicraft, Art, Gardening, &c.
3. Courses for Supplementary and partly qualified teachers.
4. Facilities for suitable men and women to qualify themselves for work in continuation schools, including schools in rural districts.
5. Provision for series of lectures of University standard, principally History, Economics, and English Literature, designed to direct the reading and private study of teachers.

(*b*) Residential courses of longer duration.

1. Intensive courses more particularly for the training of teachers for Continuation Schools and Evening Classes.
2. Instructional and Refresher Courses for teachers.
3. Short courses for teachers of Physical Education, Domestic Subjects suitable for detached rural schools, Handicraft for detached rural schools.
4. Special courses for the training of rural teachers.

(*c*) Financial assistance to teachers who wish to attend

1. Full-time courses at University Training Departments or Training Colleges.
2. Short full-time courses at home and abroad, especially summer courses at Swanley and Wye Colleges (Rural Science) and the Summer School at Folkestone (Handwork and allied subjects).
3. Local part-time courses, e. g. lectures for teachers arranged by the London County Council.

(*d*) Facilities in special cases for enabling teachers to visit schools for the purpose of studying methods and gaining enlarged experience.[1]

[1] Kent Education Committee : Draft Scheme under Education Act, 1918, ch. ix, par. 3, p. 147. In this and in all references to schemes formulated under the Act of 1918 it is, of course, important to remember that they were framed with a view to gradual development over a period of at least ten years, and that circumstances have arrested even so gradual development as this would have been.

In Scotland, owing to the existence of a central body responsible for the training of teachers, the problem of organization is simplified and overlapping is avoided. Courses of further instruction are arranged by the National Committee for the Training of Teachers through the various Provincial Committees at their respective centres and in other convenient places. Statistical information as to students is also readily forthcoming, and during the year 1919–20, for example, 55 courses for the further instruction of teachers were arranged in this way; 18 of them were Summer Vacation Courses, and the total enrolment for all courses was 2,711.[1]

[1] Scottish Education Department: *Training of Teachers. Report, Statistics, &c.*, 1919–20, Table 9, pp. 52, 53.

IX

THE PROBLEM OF THE UNQUALIFIED TEACHER

In Elementary Schools. Unqualified adult teachers, like the poor, have hitherto, unfortunately, always been with us, though qualification, like poverty, is a relative term which must be defined. Ideally we may postulate many qualities of head and heart which the teacher should possess over and above the very obvious desiderata of physical fitness and freedom from defects of speech or manner, but to dwell on these would not help us greatly at this juncture. We must approach our problem from a more practical standpoint.

The qualifications required of teachers in Elementary Schools are laid down by the Code of Regulations of the Board of Education. Thus the Head Teacher of every School or Department must

1. Be a Certificated Teacher.
2. Have obtained the Parchment Certificate or have completed such service as is required for endorsement of a Certificate.
3. Have completed satisfactorily an approved course of training.

Exceptions are made in the case of (*a*) Teachers who became Certificated under regulations prior to 1910, or (*b*) small schools with less than 40 scholars. Of the latter the Head Teacher may, under special circumstances, be an Uncertificated Mistress.

The qualifications of Assistant Teachers are also prescribed :

' In order to be recognized on the staff of a School or Department, a teacher, other than the Head Teacher, must (with certain exceptions) be a Certificated or Uncertificated Teacher, a person having the status of a Certificated or Uncertificated Teacher, or a Student Teacher recognized under the Regulations for the Training of Teachers. For the present, Supplementary Teachers and Pupil Teachers may be recognized on the staff.' [1]

[1] *Elementary Education (Provisional Code*, 1922, Arts. 9 and 11.

From these extracts it is clear that according to present standards, complete qualifications for service in the most responsible positions in Elementary Schools are possessed only by Trained Certificated Teachers, and that from this point of view all other teachers may be regarded as incompletely or partially qualified. From another point of view, however, and one which is largely adopted by the organized body of teachers, these lower categories of teachers may more correctly be regarded as *un*qualified rather than partially qualified. The attainment of an approved standard of education, together with a period spent in the study of the theory and practice of teaching, become, from this standpoint, minimum qualifications to be demanded of all those who wish to teach in state-aided schools. This view educational opinion has long endorsed, and, subject to certain modifications which will appear as we proceed, we shall not hesitate to adopt it. Thus of adult teachers in Elementary Schools the Certificated but Untrained, the Uncertificated, and the Supplementary Teacher are all unqualified, and to each of these groups we shall devote some little space.

Untrained Certificated Teachers. The institution in 1847 of the Certificate Examination for teachers without professional training was intended as a means of accelerating the supply of adult teachers for the Elementary Schools which were beginning to spring up all over the country. Possessing the added merit of cheapness for all parties, the arrangement has been continued, in spite of repeated and ever-increasing protests. In its general character the examination now held approximates somewhat to the earlier type of examination for students in Training Colleges.[1] Thus all candidates are required to be examined in Reading and Practical Teaching, and in such professional subjects as Principles of Teaching, Music, Drawing, and (for women) Needlework. English, History, Geography, Elementary Mathematics, and Elementary Science are also compulsory subjects, and in addition a student may take as an optional subject either a foreign language or Hygiene and Physical Training, the latter

[1] *B. of E. Syllabus for the Certificate Examination for Teachers in Elementary Schools*, 1922. Handicraft Teachers are exempt from certain parts of the examination.

only if an approved practical course has been followed. In scope the prescribed syllabuses in each subject approximate to those of Ordinary Courses for Training College students, though fewer alternatives are provided. Entry is normally confined to Uncertificated Teachers with at least one year's practical teaching experience in school obtained within a total period of two years, and prior to 1914 students who had been unsuccessful in their final examination in Training Colleges usually became candidates also. Since that date, however, they have been allowed the option of sitting for the Final Examination for Training College students in the following year, and often they prefer to do this rather than enter for the Examination for Acting Teachers.[1]

Apart from the unsatisfactory character of the syllabus for the examination, objections to its continuance are of two kinds, the first that owing to the lowness of the standard for a pass, an easy avenue into the profession has always been open for those of lower attainments, and the second that its continuance has done much to convey the impression that experience is an effective substitute for professional training in fitting the teacher for his task. That the standard has in the past been low is implied in several reports of the Board of Education,[2] and is well known to all who are familiar with the development of the Elementary School system. In this, even more than in the examination of Training College Students, have been seen the ill effects of a system whereby the standard of qualification is determined by the authority responsible for the staffing of the schools. The effect was to destroy the value of the examination as a satisfactory test of educational fitness for the profession, and the large number of students obtaining their certificate in this way resulted in the Board of Education Certificate *without training* becoming the normal qualification for teachers in Elementary Schools, a conception still very prevalent. With increased facilities for training, however, the number of candidates coming forward for the examination is diminishing. So long ago as 1909–10 the Board declared that the whole question

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1913–14, p. 152.
[2] e. g. *Report* for 1910–11, p. 120.

of its future was receiving attention,[1] and the exigencies of the moment have brought about its suspension for 1923.[2]

At first sight there seems to be little reason why the examination should be revived. Unfortunately, however, in the years subsequent to 1918 the Board of Education encouraged Local Education Authorities to accept and provide educational facilities for a number of intending teachers who could not hope to enter a Training College. The Authorities contend therefore that a sudden and unexpected change of policy of this kind places them in a difficult position, and a slight postponement of the date of final abolition would in all probability meet the case; that an early abolition is both desirable and possible can hardly be disputed.

The quality of the candidates presenting themselves for examination is the subject of frequent and unfavourable comment in official reports,[3] and when we bear in mind the character of the examination we can see from statistics of failures that such comments have not been by any means uncalled for. During the fourteen years 1908 to 1921 the percentage of failures ranged from 52·5 to as much as 75·1, the latter in 1912.[4]

The number of Untrained Certificated Teachers in Elementary Schools has always been considerable. In 1913–14, for example, there were 42,250, in 1919–20, 37,584,[5] and even were the examination to be discontinued, most of these would long be with us. Many of them have done and are still doing excellent service in the schools, and are untrained through no fault of their own, for the number of places available in Training Colleges was always prior to 1914 less than the number of applicants. Many, too, have left no stone unturned to avail themselves of the facilities provided for further instruction and for keeping in touch with modern methods of teaching, and most of them realize the advantage of a Training College Course. To these

[1] *Report*, 1909–10, p. 100.

[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1909–10, p. 100. *Circ. 1296* (February 1923) announced the suspension of this examination for 1923. The present intention of the Board is to hold one more examination in 1924.

[3] e. g. *B. of E. Reports*, 1910–11, 1915–16.

[4] Full details (1908 to 1921) will be found in Appendix C, p. 451.

[5] *B. of E. Statistics*, 1919–20, Table 32, p. 20.

every encouragement should be given to attend the one-year courses provided for Certificated Teachers in accordance with the regulations of the Board of Education, or, failing this, Short Courses of the kind already described.

The view that experience is an effective substitute for professional training has undoubtedly derived much support from the indifferent quality of many of the products of Training Colleges in past years, some of the reasons for which should by now be fairly obvious. But apart from this, such a view is largely based upon a misconception of the purpose of professional training. In the previous chapter, and elsewhere, we have endeavoured to make clear the general aims of those responsible for professional training, and have seen that it is their endeavour to give the intending teacher some knowledge of the general principles by which he is to be guided, to point the way to approved methods of teaching, and to initiate him into the use of these and into the general routine of school work. More than this they do not claim to be able to accomplish. Experience alone can give the young teacher confidence in his own powers, and ability to apply the principles with which he has become familiar to the general conditions of work in the class-room ; the principles experience of itself cannot give, and too often the exigencies of school duties and the acquirement of a ready facility in class-room practice encourage the assumption that any study of these principles is of little value. The truth is that experience is no substitute for professional training of the right kind, nor is professional training an adequate substitute for experience. The two are complementary ; both are necessary.

The consideration to be allowed for professional training as compared with experience was one of the questions considered by a Departmental Committee on Salaries in 1918.[1] Their Report dealt with the principles which should determine the construction of scales of salaries for teachers in Elementary Schools, and the references to professional training are of sufficient interest to merit quotation. Thus :

' It is both just and necessary that College Trained Teachers should receive higher salaries when they first begin to work in

[1] See Appendix C, pp. 436–7.

school than teachers who have become certificated by passing the Acting Teacher's Certificate. . . .

'It remains to be considered for how long the initial advantage given to teachers who go to College should last. Is it sufficient that they should be placed higher on the scale and thus get to the maximum earlier, or should they go further than this and proceed to a higher maximum? Our witnesses were by no means unanimous on the subject. Some of them held that College training exerted a permanent influence for good on the teacher, and that, as a class, they were manifestly superior to untrained teachers and deserved to be on a different scale for a long period, or even for life. This superiority was seen not only in better technique and larger stores of knowledge, but also in the other advantages of teachers who had the benefit of a long course of full time study. Other witnesses, while not depreciating the value of College training, were of opinion that it should not give the teacher so permanent an advantage; that in the long run men and women must be judged not by their early opportunities but by the use they make of them, and that after a few years' work teachers must stand or fall by their merits.

'Our view of the matter is that College Trained Teachers should not as a matter of course go to a maximum beyond that of the normal scale for Certificated Teachers. We have, however, suggested that under certain conditions it may be advantageous to advance teachers of long or exceptionally meritorious service to a maximum higher than that of the normal scale, and we think that an Authority which adopts this suggestion should include College training as one of the factors to be taken into account.'[1]

With this we may compare the views of a group of Head Teachers obtained in an entirely different connexion. In the early part of 1917 a number of Head Teachers in the county of Warwickshire (78 in all) were invited by the Director of Education to express their opinion on certain points connected with the training of teachers, and among other things were invited to compare the Collegiate with the non-Collegiate teacher. The majority held that at twenty-three the non-Collegiate teacher was the better, more efficient as a teacher and more interested in the school, but three out of four Head Teachers agreed that at twenty-six the tables were turned. To quote from the Director's interesting summary of the teachers' views:

'Untrained teachers generally improve up to a fair stage of proficiency, then either stand still or have to be goaded. Trained

[1] *Departmental Committee . . . Report*, vol. i, pp. 15–16 (Cmd. 8939), 1918.

teachers are always discovering applications for the theories and methods they learned at College and go on growing. They have discovered the actualities of school life and have fitted their theories to them, and it is just because they have theories in the background that they are able to grow. They can initiate: they are mentally alert and therefore able to sift improvements from fads.' [1]

Little further comment is needed, but it is significant that among the objections which have been raised by members of Local Education Authorities to the increased remuneration payable to teachers of long experience under recently adopted Scales of Salaries, has been the complaint that a number of them have ceased to progress and have become satisfied with a mediocre standard of work in the school. We do not suggest that such criticisms have been directed solely against the Certificated Teacher who has not been through a course of professional training, for a little experience of conditions in Elementary Schools is sufficient to convince even the veriest novice that there are other factors tending to discouragement and stagnation which must be taken into consideration. But what we do suggest is that, from every point of view, financially as well as educationally, it is the more economical course in the long run to implant in the teacher those seeds of development and growth which it is the purpose of professional training to supply. Only thus can we hope to obtain from him a service which steadily increases in value with years of experience.

Uncertificated Teachers. When we turn to the Uncertificated Teacher we find that the most recent return available gives the number serving in Elementary Schools during the year 1920–1 as 35,457,[2] and there is every indication that this grade of teacher is likely to remain for many years. The Board of Education, for example, have for some years based their estimate of the number of recruits annually required to maintain the teaching staff of Elementary Schools on the total number of adult teachers in service, including for this purpose both Certificated and Uncertificated Teachers, and the latter have also been admitted to the benefits of the latest Teachers'

[1] Summary of opinions of Warwickshire Head Teachers on certain points connected with the Training of Teachers.

[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1921–2, p. 97.

Superannuation Act (1918). Their position, therefore, is of some importance.

The name Uncertificated Teacher was first introduced about the year 1907, at a time when various changes in the character of the preliminary education of teachers were made.[1] In many respects these teachers are the successors of the ex-Pupil Teacher or Art. 50 of earlier days, and are still recruited to some extent from a similar source. Ex-Pupil Teachers, and ex-Student Teachers who have been unable or unwilling to proceed to College form the main body, and to these we must add a number of others who, beginning as Supplementary Teachers or Monitresses, pass the Preliminary Certificate Examination and so raise their status. A few (particularly during the War) were provisionally recognized if they possessed one or other of the examination qualifications which are accepted as alternatives to the Preliminary Certificate, a recognition which in many instances was made permanent after sufficient experience had been acquired.

The presence of so many teachers of this type in Elementary Schools is largely the result of earlier conditions. The Pupil Teacher system for many years involved an annual examination, and at the conclusion of the period of apprenticeship the young teacher sat for what was known as the Queen's Scholarship Examination. Later the annual examinations were abolished,[2] but the final examination remained. Theoretically all candidates obtaining a place in the first or second class at the final examination were eligible to receive two years' professional training with financial assistance in the form of a so-called scholarship, but many were unwilling to sacrifice the prospect of an immediate appointment and resulting financial gain for what was then the somewhat doubtful advantage of College training. In 1904 Mr. (now Sir) Michael Sadler pointed out to the Liverpool Education Committee that the proportion of teachers who, though qualified, did not seek admission to a Training College was a matter for serious consideration. Thus in one group of twenty-four students who had obtained a First Class in the King's Scholarship Examination, eleven had not at the time of his inquiry made any application for

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1904–5, p. 38.

[2] In 1902, *Circ. 573*, p. 13.

admission, and more than half of the candidates from the city who had obtained a First Class did not intend to take a College Training. The proportion among those who had obtained a Second Class was even larger,[1] and the position was probably much the same in other parts of the country. Moreover, there was a serious deficiency in the necessary accommodation in Training Colleges, with the result that only a very small percentage of the total number who passed the Scholarship Examination went on to a course of professional training. Thus out of 10,728 candidates who entered for the Examination in 1901, 9,764 succeeded in passing, but of these only 2,703 or 35 per cent. entered College.[2] Of the 7,061 successful candidates remaining, the majority would presumably continue to serve in the schools as ex-Pupil Teachers: the more diligent would become candidates in the Certificate Examination for Acting Teachers, but many would make little or no effort to improve their status, and would gradually cease to progress in any real sense. Practically all teachers recognized as ex-Pupil Teachers or Art. 50's under earlier Codes were recognized as Uncertificated Teachers under the new arrangement. With the addition of a certain proportion of the ex-Pupil Teachers and ex-Student Teachers of more recent years the number of these teachers serving in the schools steadily increased, amounting, for example, in 1910–11 to 45,637.[3] Since that date, with the provision of greater facilities for training, and the gradual raising of the standard of staffing demanded by the Board of Education, there has been a diminution in the number employed, and with the change of name the incompleteness of their qualifications has become more evident.

Uncertificated Teachers fall into two main groups. There are, on the one hand, those who have remained in service in the schools in this capacity for a considerable number of years, in some cases the whole of their working lives, 20, 30, 40 years, and, on the other hand, there are those who, though qualified for admission to a Training College, delay their entry upon a course of professional training. These may, at a later and more convenient date, pass through a two-year course in the

[1] Sadler, *Report on Secondary and Higher Education in Liverpool*, 1904, p. 89. *B. of E. Report*, 1902–3, p. 49.

[3] See Table, Appendix C, p. 446.

usual way, or, if this eventually prove impracticable, may raise their status by passing the Certificate Examination for Acting Teachers. The former may be regarded as permanently, the latter as temporarily uncertificated.

It is upon these general lines that the problem has been approached in recent years. For example, a Departmental Committee on Salaries, which met in 1918, in discussing the position of Uncertificated Teachers, drew a distinction between the two classes to which we have referred. They considered that every inducement should be offered to young teachers to qualify for the full Certificate, and therefore recommended payment on a short scale covering a period of from four to six years. For the older and more permanent class of Uncertificated Teacher they recommended higher maxima attainable after ten years' service.[1] This principle was carried still further, and applied to both men and women in the standard scales issued by the Burnham Committee, with the result that, while Uncertificated Teachers recognized on or after the 1st April 1914 are to be placed on salary scales which permit of annual increments ranging over a period of from seven to ten years, according to the particular scale adopted by the Local Education Authority, others recognized before that date benefit by longer scales in which the addition of annual increments continues for a period of nine to eighteen years, enabling long-service teachers to attain maxima £14 to £35 in excess of the maxima allocated to younger teachers of the same grade.[2]

With the general principles underlying these salary scales Uncertificated Teachers appear to be in agreement, though they regard the consideration accorded to years of experience to be insufficient, and complain that the difference between their rates of remuneration and those of Certificated Teachers with little experience is too great. Indeed, the whole position both as to salary and status has recently been under discussion by the National Union of Teachers, an association which now includes the Uncertificated Teacher in its ranks. At a special conference summoned to consider the problem in all its bearings, the question of the status of long-service teachers of this grade

[1] Departmental Committee Report, 1918, vol. i, pp. 19–20.
[2] See Appendix C, p. 439.

was the centre of discussion, it being felt that if this were settled, salary difficulties would be more readily adjusted.[1] Two suggestions were put forward at this conference. According to the first, the most satisfactory method of raising the status of Uncertificated Teachers of long service would be for the Board of Education to grant a Service Certificate to those with fifteen or more years' approved service, and to those recognized before 1st April 1914 upon completing fifteen years' service. The second, advocated by the Executive of the National Union of Teachers, differs from the first in being opposed to the creation of an additional grade of certificate, and preferring an arrangement whereby teachers of fifteen years' approved service or more may, after spending a year in further study at a training institution, become entitled to receive the Board of Education Certificate. To this proposal the objection is raised that for many teachers even one year of training is an impossibility, and that for this reason alone the most practicable solution will be found along the lines of a Service Certificate.

The urgency of the demand for recognition put forward by Uncertificated Teachers, and the undoubted value of the service of many of them in the schools, tend to obscure the wider issues of the problem. Whatever the defects of our system of certification of teachers for Elementary Schools may be, we have at least reached a certain conception as to what we mean by a qualified teacher, and nothing but confusion can result from the introduction of a new form of certificate based on service alone. Moreover, any lowering of the present standard of qualification required for the Board of Education Certificate cannot, on educational grounds, be tolerated.

The problem then is twofold—the remuneration and status of teachers with long and effective service, and the provision of sufficient opportunity as well as the maintenance of an adequate stimulus to young teachers to complete their qualifications. Obviously the prime necessity is an adequate provision of training facilities, particularly for women teachers, and of this we shall have to speak again very shortly.

For long-service teachers the great need is to be brought into contact with new ideas in the field of knowledge and of

[1] Report of Conference in *Schoolmaster*, 18 March 1922, p. 442.

educational theory and practice, and to them every opportunity should be afforded of spending a year, or even two, in a training institution. Where this proves to be impossible, systematic provision of further instruction, along the lines followed in recent years by the more progressive authorities, would do much towards introducing new life and interest into their work and render it all the more valuable. While the creation of a new type of certificate, emanating from the Central Authority, is to be deprecated, and the granting of the Board of Education Certificate for anything less than the present requirements for a Trained Certificated Teacher would be a concession of doubtful value, there should be little difficulty in applying to the Uncertificated Teacher already in service a principle which has been adopted for the Certificated Teacher, whereby one year of training after a period of service in school carries with it an addition to the normal salary of one annual increment over and above that which would have accrued after a corresponding period spent in teaching. This and the retention of special maxima would seem to provide an equitable and generally acceptable solution of this part of the problem.[1]

To cut off the supply of younger Uncertificated Teachers by refusing to recognize any new teachers of this grade seems to present an easy solution to the other part of our problem. But so drastic a solution would have serious disadvantages. Even under the most favourable conditions of Training College accommodation it is conceivable that financial and family reasons, or even indifferent health, may intervene to prevent the student from passing on immediately to a training course, while the necessity for earning makes it imperative that employment shall be obtained in the schools. But to continue such a postponement indefinitely should not be possible, and the adoption of a short salary scale with minima and maxima relatively low compared with those of the Certificated Teacher would seem at first sight to meet the situation. Experience shows, however, that such a solution would often prove inadequate, for, unfortunately, many Uncertificated Teachers even to-day have neither the desire nor the ability to improve their status, and would be content to continue to serve at the maximum salary, even

[1] See note on p. 229.

though this were relatively low. To these it would be advisable to refuse continued recognition after the expiration of the years of service required to reach the maximum salary for the grade. Under such an arrangement the period during which a teacher was Uncertificated would become, in fact as it is in name, a transition period within which every opportunity and facility would be given to individual teachers to overcome those difficulties of circumstance which cannot always be avoided. Uncertificated Teachers would not entirely disappear, but the less progressive and capable would in this way steadily be eliminated. Existing teachers with long service would receive equitable treatment, and the problem would be prevented from ever again assuming the like proportions.

Supplementary Teachers. The third group of unqualified adult teachers in Elementary Schools comprises what are now known as Supplementary Teachers, a name applied to them because they were in the first instance used to supplement the teaching staffs of Elementary Schools owing to the insufficiency of qualified teachers. Like the class known to-day as Uncertificated Teachers, they have been variously designated. First introduced in 1875 and 1876 as 'assistants' in infant schools, in place of monitors, they quickly spread to girls' and mixed schools, and subsequently were employed in boys' schools also to instruct the lower standards.[1] Later they came to be known as 'Additional Women Teachers', or 'Article 68's', from the Article of the Code sanctioning their employment;[2] finally, in the years following the Act of 1902 the present designation was adopted.[3]

It is easier to say what a Supplementary Teacher is not than to explain what she is. The well-known and well-worn description of her as a woman of eighteen years or over who had been successfully vaccinated is no longer strictly applicable. The age requirement remains, but vaccination, though frequently required by the Local Education Authority, is no longer laid down as a condition of approval by the Board of Education. No academic qualifications are necessary, no evidence of training in teaching is required, even a stipulation that the Supplementary

[1] Balfour, op. cit., p. 44.
[2] *Code for Elementary Education*, 1890.
[3] Cf. *B. of E. Reports*, 1902–3, p. 30; 1903–4, p. 32; 1904–5, p. 32.

Teacher should be specially approved by the Inspector for capacity in teaching has recently disappeared.[1] All that the Board of Education now do is to prescribe certain conditions of employment. Thus, for example, a Local Education Authority which employs Supplementary Teachers must satisfy themselves by means of a medical certificate in a prescribed form as to the physical fitness of any who may be newly appointed, and must make adequate provision for the further instruction of all those in their employment. Not more than two of this grade of teacher are allowed on the staff of a single department, and until recently, except in the case of teachers recognized in urban schools and upper standards before certain dates, their employment was only sanctioned in rural infant schools, and for the lowest class of older scholars in a rural school or department of which the average attendance does not exceed one hundred. The withdrawal of a Supplementary Teacher from any school may be required by H.M. Inspector at any time, and the fact that the withdrawal of a particular teacher has not been required from a given school does not imply that the same teacher may not have to be withdrawn from any other school to which she may subsequently be appointed.[2] Since July 1920 the general consent of the Board to the employment of such teachers has been conditional upon the Local Education Authority making satisfactory arrangements for maintaining an adequate supply of qualified teachers.[3] These regulations, being rather more stringent than those in force prior to the war, seemed to point to an intention on the part of the Central Authority to eliminate many Supplementary Teachers. Recent events have shown that any hopes of this kind which may have been aroused were premature, for in their zeal for economy the Board of Education have discovered that the more progressive Education Authorities have erred in staffing infant schools too generously, and that it is unnecessary that every assistant teacher in an infant department should be a Trained Teacher, a Certificated Teacher, or even an Uncertificated Teacher.[4] It is suggested that classes of

[1] Cf. *Code 1919*, Appendix D, par. 1, p. 27, and *Code 1922*, Appendix D, par. 1, p. 37.

[2] *Code 1922*, Appendix D. [3] *Circ. 1169* of 9 July 1920.

[4] House of Commons, 27 April 1922, Education Debate.

children under six years of age might very well be staffed with women chosen for their personal suitability and aptitude for the work rather than their academic qualifications, an aspect of the question to which we shall presently return.

Much of the provision for popular education in its early years was made by voluntary organizations, whose financial resources were none too great. The employment of additional women teachers provided an easy and cheap means of staffing schools which was not likely to remain unexploited, and the number rapidly increased. Standing at 543 in 1876, it had by 1890 increased to almost ten times that figure (5,210),[1] and by 1906 a maximum of 19,776 had been attained.[2] Of these 91 were men, temporarily recognized on declaring their intention to qualify as Uncertificated Teachers in two years' time. The number of men increased in the following year to 219,[3] but the experiment was a failure, and was shortly afterwards abandoned. After 1906 the total number of Supplementary Teachers employed decreased each year, and had fallen by 1913–14 to 13,367; a slight reduction was effected in the period immediately following the war, but a return has since been made to pre-war conditions. In 1919–20 there were 13,424 Supplementary Teachers employed in Public Elementary Schools, a figure subsequently increased to 13,500 in 1920–1.[4] Later returns will no doubt show a further increase.

Owing to the restrictions as to employment established by the Board of Education and the action of the more progressive Borough and Urban Authorities, the question of the employment of the Supplementary Teacher has gradually been becoming one of the many problems connected with education in rural areas. In 1913–14, for example, 11,380 (or 85·1 per cent.) of the 13,367 Supplementary Teachers employed in England and Wales were to be found in the areas administered by the Education Committees of County Councils; in 1919–20 the corresponding percentage was 85·6.[5] Figures for the years 1914–19 would (if forthcoming) probably show an increase in County

[1] *B. of E. Statistics*, 1901–2, Table 24.
[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1906–7, p. 43.
[3] Ibid., 1907–8, p. 33.
[4] See Table, Appendix C, p. 446, for more complete statistics.
[5] *B. of E. Statistics*, 1913–14, Table 16, p. 33; 1919–20, Table 34, p. 21.

Boroughs, Boroughs and Urban Districts, London alone, for example, employing approximately 300; but such additions were in many cases only temporary, and ceased on the return of more normal conditions of staffing at the close of the war. Recently the numbers have again begun to increase in these areas in pursuance of a policy of economy.

The long-continued employment of Supplementary Teachers is sufficient evidence, if any were needed, of the slowness of educational progress in this country, but the attempt to justify their permanent retention and an increase in their number has aroused even the most optimistic to a sense of the precariousness of such advance as has been made. It is evident that the real motive for a reversion of policy on the part of the Board of Education and of the one-time progressive Local Education Authorities is a desire to save money by employing the cheapest possible labour in the schools, and the attempt to justify this change on educational grounds deceives no one but themselves. The step taken by the Board of Education has called forth vigorous protests,[1] and the action of the London Education Committee in advertising for one hundred Supplementary Teachers for appointment in infants' schools aroused the active opposition of the London Teachers' Association, comprising the London members of the National Union of Teachers.[2] This action on the part of the teachers was admittedly dictated to some extent by the fear that the professional status of members of the Union would be lowered, and may therefore in some quarters meet with the less approval. Nevertheless on educational grounds it was wholly justified, and rarely have the organized

[1] e. g. from the National Union of Teachers, the National Union of Women Teachers, the Froebel Society, the Montessori Society, and a Joint Conference of the following: Association of Education Committees, Workers' Educational Association, Teachers Registration Council, Co-operative Union, National Association of Professional Workers . . ., Trade Union Congress General Council, and the National Union of Teachers.

The Education Committee of the County Councils Association has formulated the following resolution, typical of others:

'That the training of children is as important in the early as in the later stages of their school life; that the proposals of the Board of Education in regard to the employment of unqualified women for the teaching of children under six years of age are educationally and socially unsound; and that the Board's policy in this matter should be objected to.'

[2] *Schoolmaster*, 21 July 1922, p. 99, and subsequent issues.

body of teachers in fighting their own battles been so definitely and obviously fighting the battles of the nation's children.

Underlying the suggestion that the younger children in infant schools should be taught by women chosen for their personal suitability and aptitude rather than their academic qualifications lies the implication that the Certificated and Uncertificated Teacher of to-day are too highly qualified academically for the task. If by this is meant that their general education has been carried to too high a level, we would suggest that in the light of the evidence put forward in earlier chapters of this memorandum, an assertion of this kind is untenable. If, on the other hand, the implication is that the preparation of fully qualified teachers for work in infant schools has been too exclusively academic, we may to some extent agree, but at the same time may point to recent developments in the methods of training teachers of young children, which we have described elsewhere, as a proof that the remedy is not far to seek. There may be, probably there is, even a third implication behind this suggestion, namely, that there are available for service in the schools numbers of women, well educated, though without the necessary examination qualifications which would entitle them to rank as Uncertificated Teachers. A few, a very few, found their way into the schools during the war, but to expect to draw upon this source to-day is to ignore the unparalleled expansion of the sphere of employment for women, as well as the increased rates of remuneration which they have been able to command. Indeed, behind the employment of the Supplementary Teacher, even in the years prior to 1914, lurked certain assumptions. The first was that now openly put forward, namely, that for the younger children less qualified teachers are needed. The second was the assumption that the country child of tender years does not require to be taught by such skilled teachers as his city or urban contemporary, and, thirdly, the Board's persistent efforts to secure provision for the instruction of these teachers have been prompted by the hope that among them would be found some who, by raising their qualifications, would add to the diminishing stream of recruits for the teaching profession.

Nothing but ignorance of or wilful blindness to the steadily increasing knowledge of child-life, medical, physiological, and

psychological, can account for the first of these assumptions. Every addition to our knowledge points to the very great importance of the earliest years of life, and the dangers attendant upon unskilled guidance, and furthermore our discussion of the training of teachers for the young should have made it clear that to return to earlier conditions would be to place an obstacle in the very centre of the stream of educational progress. For the second assumption, ignorance of the rural child and of his needs and capabilities is largely responsible, though here there are difficulties of a special character arising out of the small size of many of the schools, the difficulty of obtaining teachers, and the relatively high cost of staffing. For a time the possibilities of reorganization under the Education Act of 1918 seemed to point a way out of these difficulties by turning the thoughts of local administrators to the question of consolidated or central schools for older children. Such an arrangement, while open to other objections, has at least this merit; by economy of staff for the older children it would be financially possible to provide more skilled guidance for the younger, and it is to be hoped that the present opportunism will soon pass, and the very special problem of rural areas be approached with a view to a sound and comprehensive solution.

How far the Board of Education and Local Education Authorities are justified in regarding Supplementary Teachers as a possible source of supply for the higher grade is a question which cannot be answered completely without more details than are available in published statistics. A partial answer, however, may be attempted. In the annual report for 1919–20 [1] the Board of Education make a comparison between the percentage of failures among the various types of candidates for the Preliminary Examination for the Certificate. Among the groups is one styled 'Other candidates', consisting mainly (so we are informed) of Supplementary Teachers. The actual number of candidates is not given, but of those who entered only 34 per cent. passed, and it is fairly safe to assume that few of those who were successful would subsequently prepare for the Certificate Examination for Acting Teachers or enter a Training College.

[1] *Report*, 1919–20, par. 167, p. 59.

The history of the London 'guinea girls' provides more definite evidence on this point. With the approval of the Board of Education the London Education Committee decided in the early years of the war to invite applications from suitable women for work in infant schools. Upwards of 800 applicants came forward, and of these approximately 300 were selected, put through an intensive training of three months' duration in infant-school method, for which they were asked to pay the nominal fee of one guinea, and passed out to teach in the schools. Four years later, on the conclusion of the war, this arrangement came to an end, but an attempt was made to retain in the profession as many of these additional teachers as were willing to undergo and likely to benefit by a two-year course of professional training. About 200 expressed their willingness to do this. Of these only 63 (or thereabouts) were recommended by the Head Teachers in whose schools they had taught as likely to profit by such a course, and only about 50 could be accepted for training after interview with representatives of the Board of Education, the London Education Committee, and the Training Colleges. The selected students entered London County Council Colleges, where they passed through a special course of a much simpler character than the ordinary Training College course, and whence they ultimately emerged with the Certificate of the Board of Education, after a wastage from the original 200 willing to be trained of at least 75 per cent.

One other group should be mentioned before we leave the Elementary School. The employment of monitors is still allowed by the Code.[1] These are persons over the legal age of obligation to attend school who are permitted to assist in a general way, usually with younger children. They must not be placed in charge of, or made responsible for, the teaching of a class or part of a class, but any one who is at all familiar with conditions of staffing in small rural schools knows only too well that where an adult teacher is in charge of a group of children of different ages and at different stages of mental development, these regulations may at times prove ineffective. No figures are available as to the numbers employed in the whole country, and they are doubtless comparatively small and confined to rural areas and

[1] *Elementary Education : Provisional Code*, 1922, Art. 11 (*f*).

small schools. It is sometimes urged that in this way additional adult teachers are obtained, but the instances in which a monitor becomes ultimately a qualified teacher are few and far between. The real effect of their continued employment is to increase the number of unqualified teachers in Elementary Schools. Such of them as continue to the age of eighteen are usually put forward for recognition as Supplementary Teachers, and though attempts are made in some areas to provide instruction in Saturday morning classes, their prospects of obtaining further qualifications are but slight.

Secondary Schools. The unqualified teacher is not peculiar to Elementary Schools. He may be found to a varying degree in all types of Secondary and Private Schools, although here, owing to the smaller numbers concerned, the problem is hardly of the same magnitude.

The active intervention of the Board of Education in the field of Secondary Education dates back to 1900, when the first inspections were held under the Act of 1899.[1] Regulations appeared in 1905, and have been subsequently modified in various ways, but at no time have the Board attempted to define the qualifications required of teachers in the manner adopted for Elementary Schools. In order that a Secondary School may be recognized for purposes of grant it is necessary that ' the teaching staff be sufficient in number and qualifications for providing adequate instruction in each subject of the approved curriculum, and where the Board think fit, they may, on consideration of the teaching staff as a whole, require that a certain proportion of all new appointments shall consist of persons who have gone through a course of training recognized for the purpose '.[2]

If as minimum qualifications for teaching in Elementary Schools we demand the attainment of an approved standard of general education together with a period of professional training, we cannot accept less for other teachers. For Secondary Schools, as distinct from Preparatory Schools or Departments, it is generally agreed that no standard of general education lower than is represented by graduation at a British University should

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1901–2, p. 61.

[2] *Education (England), Regulations for Secondary Schools*, 1921, Art. 16.

be accepted. In the academic qualifications of the staffs of both boys' and girls' schools there has been a gradual improvement, though details are only available for schools which make returns to the Board of Education. Particulars obtained by the Board in 1897 showed that there were at that time 6,209 so-called Secondary Schools, and that of the masters employed whole time in Boys' Schools, 55·9 per cent. were graduates, while in Mixed Schools the percentage was 25·8. Thirty-two per cent. of Boys' Schools and 81·37 per cent. of Mixed Schools had no Graduate at all on the Staff inclusive of the Head Master. The position in Girls' Schools was even worse, only 12 per cent. of the full-time staffs having qualifications equivalent to degrees.[1] Inspection soon showed that 'an improved standard of teaching power was the indispensable condition of development and improvement in Secondary Schools',[2] and under the general regulations just quoted some improvement has been effected. The extent of this in grant-earning schools is indicated from time to time in official reports, and may be shown in tabular form thus:

Staffs of Secondary Schools.[3]

	Percentage of Graduates.		*Percentage of Trained Teachers.*	
Year.	*Men.*	*Women.*	*Men.*	*Women.*
1907–8	58	37	29	38
1909–10	64	42	31	45
1913–14	71·6	52·3	37·5	47·4
1920–1	69·7	53·5	—	—

The proportion of teachers who in 1913 were both graduates and had also passed through courses of professional training was 27·9 per cent. for men and 29·7 per cent. for women.

So far as the academic qualifications of teachers in State-aided Secondary Schools are concerned, the problem seems to be in a fair way to being solved. Practically all new appointments are of teachers possessing graduate or equivalent qualifications, and if the rapid increase in specialization which has taken place within the past few years is maintained, teachers with good honours degrees will be more and more in demand. We may look forward to the time when all State-aided and inspected

[1] Norwood and Hope, *Higher Education of Boys in England*, p. 39.
[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1905–6, p. 59.
[3] Ibid., 1910–11, p. 108; 1920–1, p. 29 (percentage trained not given).

Secondary Schools, as distinct from Preparatory Schools or Departments, will be staffed by graduates, with the possible exception of a small percentage of teachers of such subjects as Physical Exercises, Music, Art, Handicraft. Even the latter will possess qualifications in their subjects equivalent to a University Degree.

When we turn to the question of professional training we find much slower progress, though even here some advance may be noted, and allowance must always be made for the not inconsiderable number of untrained Secondary Teachers who avail themselves of the facilities provided by Vacation Schools for studying educational principles and methods of teaching their special subjects. We have already suggested that a stiffening of the requirements of the Board of Education might do much to increase the number of trained teachers,[1] and the line taken by the Teachers Registration Council will in time bring about an improvement in this direction. By providing grants for Secondary Students on the same basis as those for Elementary Students the Board have removed some of the financial difficulties,[2] and if the profession of faith in training made by Head Masters did but lead consistently to action, it would be merely a matter of time before the proportion of trained and untrained teachers would be reversed.

Private Schools. Private Schools have hitherto lain outside the purview of Central and Local Authorities alike. In some quarters they are regarded as the happy hunting-ground of the unqualified teacher, in others it is maintained that the teachers in them are the salt of the English educational system. Extreme statements such as these are neither wholly true nor wholly false. The best private-enterprise schools compare favourably with schools of any other type, and as Sir Michael Sadler recently pointed out, English education would have had a very impoverished tradition without the experiments made in them.[3] On the other hand, it is equally true that there are far too many inefficient private schools, as shown by the fact that of more than 2,000 referred to the Teachers Registration Council for approval, only one third could be accepted as institutions in which

[1] Ch. vi, p. 236.

[2] See pp. 32 and 244.

[3] *The Times Educational Supplement*, 21 January 1922.

a young teacher might gain experience which would be valid for registration purposes.[1] It is these schools in particular which harbour the unqualified and inefficient teacher, and now that service in State-aided schools brings improved remuneration and entitles to superannuation they are less likely than ever to attract able and qualified teachers. For these the remedy lies to hand in those Sections of the Education Act, 1918, which require the Authorities responsible for all schools not in receipt of grants to supply such information as may from time to time be required by the Board of Education, and which render possible their inspection by the Local or Central Authority.[2] These provisions wisely administered, together with the operation of the regulations of the Teachers Registration Council, would probably be sufficient to eliminate the hopelessly inefficient schools and teachers, and to raise the standard in others more nearly to that prevailing in the better Private Schools and in recognized Secondary Schools. From inspection and from registration qualified and progressive teachers realize that they have nothing to fear.

Unqualified Teachers in Scotland. For Scotland the problem of the unqualified teacher is a diminishing problem. With the provision of adequate facilities for professional training, other avenues to the profession have gradually been closed. The earlier varieties of Assistant Teacher, particularly ex-Pupil Teachers and Provisionally Certificated Teachers, have not yet disappeared, but only teachers actually serving as such prior to 1895 and 1906 respectively are now recognized.[3] Moreover, the last Certificate Examination for Acting Teachers was held in July 1915, and to-day the only untrained teachers who are admitted to teach in the schools are Junior Students who have successfully completed their course and who may apply to be provisionally recognized as Uncertificated Teachers. Such provisional recognition will not, save in exceptional circumstances, be continued for more than two years of service.[4] The result of this policy is seen in the published figures as to the staffs of

[1] *The Times Educational Supplement*, 9 June 1923, p. 269.

[2] Sections 8 (3), 10 (4), 28.

[3] *Education* (*Scotland*), 1922. *Regulations, Training and Certification of Teachers*, Art. 71 and foot-notes (p. 23).

[4] Ibid., Art. 75.

Scottish Schools. Thus, choosing statistics for alternate years since 1911, we see a steady decrease in the number of Uncertificated Teachers in Primary and Intermediate Schools :

	1911.	1913.	1915.	1917.	1919.
Certificated .	18,869	19,906	20,921	21,696	21,436
Uncertificated .	1,169	686	422	316	304

And in 1920 in all types of schools (Primary, Intermediate, Secondary, Reformatory, and Industrial) there were only 190 Uncertificated as compared with 24,706 Certificated Teachers, the number of the former being therefore less than 1 per cent. (0·767) of the total number of teachers employed.[1]

The Teachers Registration Council. Here we may conveniently say a little more about the Teachers Registration Council, since it is in connexion with the unqualified teacher that the work of this body is of most significance. Among the duties suggested for the Consultative Committee recommended by the Bryce Commission (1895) was the formation of a Register of Teachers.[2] Prior to this date there had been various attempts to establish Registration Schemes, notably the founding of the College of Preceptors in 1846. But as a State system of certification of teachers in Elementary Schools was by this time developing, this and subsequent proposals of a similar kind were confined to teachers in Secondary Schools, both Private and Endowed, whereas the Register which the Bryce Commission had in mind was to include all types of teacher. The Board of Education Act of 1899 authorized the setting up of a Consultative Committee charged (among other duties) with the forming and keeping of a register of teachers,[3] but, unfortunately, the register initiated by this Committee in 1902 was arranged in two columns, one for Secondary and the other for Elementary Teachers, a policy which aroused strong opposition. Moreover, the Registration Council had little freedom of action, and in 1906 this particular scheme was abandoned. By the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act of 1907, however, authority was given for the issuing of an Order in Council setting up a separate Council representative of the teaching profession, for the purpose of

[1] *Education (Scotland), Return showing Grant-earning Day Schools with Statistics*, 1919–20, p. 110.

[2] Ch. i, p. 26.

[3] Balfour, op. cit., p. 32.

forming and keeping a register of teachers in one column in alphabetical order.[1] A conference in 1909 showed the unanimity of the various branches of the profession on this question,[2] and finally on the 29th February 1912 the Order in Council was issued.[3] The new Registration Council was to be representative of the whole profession, University, Secondary, Elementary, and Specialist Teachers. The members were to number forty-four, and to be teachers or persons recently engaged in teaching, one member from each University, and eleven members from each of the other three groups : the Chairman was to be chosen from outside, and the Council to be elected for triennial periods.

The conditions of registration issued in 1913 were threefold—applicants must have reached a standard of knowledge appropriate to their branch of work, produce evidence satisfactory to the Council of having completed successfully a course of professional training in the principles and methods of teaching, accompanied by practice under supervision, and also submit satisfactory evidence of experience as teachers in an educational institution approved by the Council or as private teachers. The period of training must have extended over at least one academic year, and the experience must have been for a period of either three years' full-time or five years of part-time teaching. The fee for registration was at first one guinea, and is now a single payment of £2 ; the Certificate of Registration issued to applicants who satisfy the conditions is valid for nine years from the date of issue. After that period it may be renewed without further charge, provided the conditions in force for the time being are fulfilled.

The Council also admits those who cannot satisfy the full conditions for registration to an official list of Associate Teachers, provided they signify their intention of becoming fully registered within seven years from the date of admission. For this the fee is 15*s*., and failing application for full membership within the prescribed period, the name is removed from the list.[4]

The third Council has recently completed its period of service, and has seen the success of the Register assured. During the

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1906–7, pp. 9, 10. [2] Ibid., 1908–9, pp. 104 and 186.
[3] Ibid., 1910–11, p. 80.
[4] Teachers Registration Council, Conditions of Registration.

war the number of applications naturally declined, but more vigorous propaganda during the past three years has definitely turned the tide. By the 1st of August, 1922, 73,359 teachers had made application for registration out of an estimated total of 110,000 likely to be eligible, and 2,668 applications had been refused. The official list for 1922 contains the names of 70,691 teachers.[1]

We have already had occasion to refer to the activities of the Council in various directions, but it is well to remind ourselves that the purpose for which it was established, the maintenance of a register of qualified teachers, is not merely its main work, but is the root of all its power. The mere maintenance of a register, however, is far from either exhausting the scope of its activities or absorbing the energy of its members. The conditions of registration make it necessary for the Council to approve institutions and the courses of training which they provide, as well as schools in which experience may be obtained. What this means has been seen in the readjustment of courses of training for Kindergarten and Specialist Teachers, and the sorting out of private schools.[2] It is an inestimable advantage to know from teachers themselves what is meant by a qualified teacher. Like the Medical Council, to which it is often compared, the Teachers Council, to use a more recent designation, will protect the public by gradually educating it to distinguish between the professional and the 'quack'. Like the Medical Council, its influence will gradually secure for those on its Register advantages denied to the unregistered. Like the Medical Council, too, the Teachers Council does not propose to become an examining and certifying body, for to do so would tend to reintroduce a uniformity contrary to its general policy and inimical to sound educational development.

Representing every branch of the teaching profession, as the Council does, it may rightly speak, and indeed already has spoken, for the profession as a whole on subjects not appearing at first sight to be directly connected with Registration. For example, at a Conference of some forty Teachers' Associations held in 1920 under the Council's auspices a resolution was passed to the effect that teachers shall be taken into considera-

[1] Official List of Registered Teachers, 1922. [2] pp. 224–5, and ch. vii.

tion by both Central and Local Authorities on all important questions (administrative or otherwise) affecting legislation,[1] a resolution implying that it would be within the province of the Council to secure adequate representation for teachers on all Education Committees.

Without doubt the Council will play an important part in the future. It has already proved a factor of no small importance in bringing about greater solidarity in the teaching profession, and will in time be able to raise the standard of professional training and the status of teachers in general. Enthusiasts talk of a self-governing profession, supreme in all matters educational, but it should never be forgotten that education cannot at any time become so entirely a matter for the professional man as, for example, is medicine. The teacher is but one in a partnership, the other members of which are the parent and the community, and it is by co-operation and expert guidance rather than by dominance and control that he can best play his part in furthering the well-being of society. 'A wise teacher', to quote Dr. Ernest Barker, 'will only desire to be king in his own sphere; outside that he will only desire the honour of consultation, even as kings are honoured with consultation by those who administer kingdoms.'[2]

Note on Burnham Scales of Salary and Uncertificated Teachers. A Director of Education calls attention to the fact that under the Burnham Scales for Elementary Teachers uncertificated service is generally disallowed when a teacher becomes certificated, although in the case of a non-graduate teacher in a Secondary School such service would count. He suggests that it would be more just that Uncertificated Teachers qualifying further should be placed on the new scale at the figure they are already receiving, and proceed by the usual increments to the higher maximum. Certainly the modification which he suggests would encourage young teachers to complete their qualifications.

[1] *The Times Educational Supplement*, 20 May 1920, p. 257.
[2] *Hibbert Journal*, April 1923.

X

THE FINANCE OF THE TRAINING SYSTEM

To understand the financial problems connected with our subject, it is necessary to grasp at the outset the broad outlines of English educational administration as a whole. At the centre we have the Board of Education, a separate Department of State whose main duty it is to administer the sum of money voted annually by Parliament for educational purposes. Since the Education Act of 1902 the greater part of this has been paid in grants to Local Education Authorities—the Councils of Counties, County Boroughs, Municipal Boroughs, and Urban Districts. Of these, the first two are responsible for the provision and development of all forms of education within their respective areas, the last two only for elementary education, all education other than elementary being under the control of the Education Authority for the County in which the Municipal Borough or Urban District is situated. The grants thus paid by the Board now form between 50 and 60 per cent. of the total amount expended on education by Local Authorities, and a little over 60 per cent. of the total expenditure on education from all sources.[1] The remainder of the money spent by Local Education Authorities is raised by levying rates. Over the activities of these bodies the Board of Education exercise a considerable measure of control by the issue of regulations which must be fulfilled before grants can be paid, and supervise details by means of a field staff of men and women inspectors.

The Act of 1902, however, did not hand over the finance of all educational institutions to Local Authorities. An exception was made of various institutions engaged in other than elementary education, some local, but the majority not strictly so—such, for example, were many Secondary Schools, the Universities,

[1] *Seventh Report from the Select Committee on National Expenditure*, 1920, Cmd. No. 248. *Cambridge House Bulletins : Education*, i, p. 4.

Colleges provided by Voluntary Bodies for the Training of Teachers, certain National Museums and Schools of Science and Art. Grants were paid direct to these institutions prior to 1902 and continued to be so paid after the passing of the Act. Except in the case of a number of Secondary Schools which have passed to a greater or less degree under the control of Local Education Authorities, the same method of direct financial assistance has continued to this day.

Administratively, therefore, the system for the education and training of teachers which we have described does not fall exclusively into either of these categories. Among the powers and duties of Local Education Authorities are the maintenance of an adequate supply of teachers, and in practice these bodies are responsible for practically the whole of the preliminary education and training of the prospective Elementary Teacher. To a greater or less degree they also provide facilities for professional training, but a great part of the provision for such training is made by long-established Voluntary Training Colleges and Universities. With these the Board of Education deals directly and not through the intermediary of Local Education Authorities.

The whole of the expenditure with which we are concerned here falls under what is known officially as Higher Education, a term used to include all education other than elementary. The moneys expended by Local Education Authorities on Higher Education are derived from two main sources—State grants and local rates. By the Technical Instruction Act of 1889 the Councils of Counties and County Boroughs were empowered to raise funds for technical instruction by levying a rate not exceeding a penny in the pound, and in 1890 their resources were augmented by the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, which allotted to them annually out of the Customs and Excise duties a sum of money originally intended as compensation to publicans. Of this a certain amount was to be devoted to police superannuation, but the residue might be used to supply or aid the supply of Technical Education.[1] By the Education Act of 1902 the Technical Instruction Acts were repealed, but the Residue Grant remained payable to

[1] Balfour, op. cit., p. 166.

the Councils of Counties and County Boroughs for purposes of Higher Education. The same Act also raised the limit of rate which might be levied in County Areas for this purpose to twopence, while for County Boroughs no limit was imposed.[1] By the Revenue Act of 1911 the amount of the Residue Grant was fixed at the figure for 1908–9, £807,260, a sum which is annually distributed to Local Authorities of Administrative Counties and County Boroughs, and forms their first source of income for Higher Education.[2] Further assistance is derived from grants payable out of the Parliamentary Vote by the Board of Education in accordance with regulations made in pursuance of their statutory powers. These are known as Substantive Grants, and prior to the passing of the Education Act of 1918 the proportion of expenditure on Higher Education falling upon the Central and the Local Authority varied somewhat according to the amount of grant earned by the latter. Section 44 of this Act, however, requires the Board of Education to pay 50 per cent. of all approved expenditure of Local Education Authorities, and in order to comply with this provision a Deficiency Grant was until the 1st April 1922 paid by the Board of Education in respect of Higher Education, sufficient in amount to make the total of the State contribution equal to the required 50 per cent. This Deficiency Grant in 1919–20, for example, was estimated at £2,750,000.[3] The remaining 50 per cent. has to be raised by levying a rate, which since the 1918 Act has not been restricted to any particular limit.[4] In cases where the Residue and Substantive Grants together exceeded one-half of the Local Education Authority's expenditure on Higher Education no Deficiency Grant was paid. On 1st April 1922 the grant system changed; the Board of Education now pay to Local Education Authorities a consolidated grant for Higher Education equal to one-half of the net expenditure of the Authority recognized for purposes of grant.[5]

Other bodies providing facilities for Higher Education are also eligible to receive Substantive Grants from the Central

[1] Balfour, op. cit., pp. 167 and 171.

[2] *Statistics of Public Education in England and Wales*, Pt. II, Financial Statistics, 1912–13, pp. 205–6.

[3] *Seventh Report*, Section 30.

[4] Education Act, 1918, Section 7.

[5] *Higher Education (Substantive Grant) Regulations*, 1922, Section 1.

Authority on compliance with the regulations in force for the time being, and some of them, as, for example, the authorities of Secondary Schools and of the newer Universities, receive assistance from the Local Education Authorities whose areas they serve. A small proportion of income is also derived from endowments.

Turning from these general considerations to that part of Higher Education which comprises the education and training of teachers, we find that a recent estimate placed the total amount to be expended for this purpose from all sources in the year 1921–2 as £1,603,000, distributed as follows:

	£
Expenditure of Local Education Authorities—Training Colleges and Aids to Students	593,000
Direct Grants to Training Colleges and University Training Departments	872,000
Day Training College Students—Maintenance Grants	138,000
	1,603,000 [1]

The figure £593,000, given as the estimated expenditure of Local Education Authorities,[2] does not include any sums expended by them in respect of preliminary education and training in the form of scholarships and maintenance allowances to intending teachers in Secondary Schools, or the provision of instruction for Pupil Teachers. Opinion varies as to whether these earlier stages may legitimately be included in an estimate of the annual cost of educating and training teachers, but when we consider that facilities for the preliminary education of these young people are specifically provided because they are intending to become teachers, and in the majority of cases would not otherwise have been available, we may fairly include the cost in our estimate of the charges borne by public funds in respect of teacher training.

No detailed estimates are available for the year 1921–2 in respect of this preliminary period, but an approximate figure can be obtained by reference to earlier years. Thus, for example,

[1] *First Interim Report of the Committee on National Expenditure*, 1922, Cmd. 1581, Pt. II, ch. i, Section 12 (*a*) and (*b*).

[2] This figure, £593,000, has since been replaced by a revised estimate, £615,000 (*Memorandum on the Board of Education Estimates*, 1922–3, Cmd. 163).

in 1918–19, 9,751 intending teachers attending Secondary Schools and similar institutions were in receipt of maintenance grants to the total amount of £94,654.[1] Assuming that the total cost per pupil of each year of Secondary Education is £28,[2] and that each of these intending teachers was receiving free education in a Secondary School, we may arrive at a rough estimate of the annual cost of such preliminary education :

	£
Estimated annual cost of education in Secondary Schools—	
9,751 × £28	163,028
Maintenance Grants (1918–19)	94,654
	257,682

Doubtless there would be other intending teachers holding scholarships who were not in receipt of maintenance grants, so that our figure is probably too low for 1918–19, and much more so for the year 1921–2. It may serve, however, to illustrate how the cost of preliminary education and training is made up. In addition to this there would be considerable expenditure by Local Education Authorities on the education and training of Pupil Teachers. Here no figures are available since 1912–13, in which year the grants of the Board of Education for the purpose amounted to £41,295.[3] These grants represented about half the amount expended by Local Education Authorities, so that the expenditure under our third heading for that year was approximately £82,000. Again the figure will be an underestimate for a recent year such as 1920–1, and may probably be safely increased by 50 per cent. Using the figure thus obtained as an illustration, we see that the total amount expended from all sources on the education and training of teachers in England and Wales is approximately £2,000,000. Thus :

	£
Training of Teachers other than Pupil Teachers and Grants to Students	1,603,000 (1920–1 estimate)
Education of Intending Teachers in Secondary Schools . . .	257,000 (1918–19 estimate)
Cost of Educating Pupil Teachers .	123,000 (1912–13 estimate increased 50 per cent.)
	1,983,000

[1] *Report of Departmental Committee on Scholarships and Free Places*, Table E 2, p. 76.

[2] *Seventh Report*, 1920, Section 24.

[3] *B. of E. Financial Statistics*, 1911–12–13, Table 134, p. 3.

Cost of Preliminary Education. The intricacies of educational finance are for the expert, and we do not propose to enter into them any more than is necessary to serve our purpose. The years since 1914 have seen a gradual simplification of the grant system, a simplification of which the 50 per cent. Consolidated Grant for Higher Education is one of the more recent developments. So far as the preliminary education of teachers is concerned, this simplification will render unnecessary a series of elaborate calculations which the system of Substantive Grants entailed. But as these grants have been largely instrumental in determining the scale of expenditure of Local Education Authorities under this head, we have summarized them below and have used them as a guide in estimating the approximate cost of the earlier stages of preparation for the profession (see Table, p. 237). What these stages are has already been explained, and the reader is referred to Chapters II and III for the elucidation of any terms of which the meaning may not be clear.

Preliminary Education and Training of Teachers.

Grants payable by the Board of Education prior to 1st April 1922 : [1]

Intending Bursars—Bursars.

A. To the Authority maintaining the Secondary School.

1. For each year of attendance at the Secondary School (usually four years including the Bursar year) an annual grant of £7.

B. To the Local Education Authority.

2. For each of the four years spent at the Secondary School a grant in respect of maintenance allowances made to the pupil by the Authority, such grant being equivalent to one-half the amount allowed but not exceeding £15 per annum.

3. A final grant of £10 on account of each Bursar who completed a course of education and training and passed an approved examination qualifying for admission to a Training College not less than one year after the end of the Secondary School Course.

[1] *Training of Teachers (Amending) Regulations* (No. 1), 1921, Section 2.

4. A grant of £2 for each Bursar in aid of travelling and other incidental expenses.

Intending Pupil Teachers—Pupil Teachers (2 years).

1. For each year spent in a Secondary School or in a Preparatory Class attached to a Pupil Teacher Centre an annual grant of £7 to the Authority maintaining the School or Centre.
2. For each year of part-time instruction during the two years of Pupil Teachership a grant of £3 10*s.* to the Authority providing the instruction, whether at Secondary School or separate Centre.[1]
3. A final grant of £10 as for Bursars.
4. A final grant of £2 as for Bursars.

Rural Pupil Teachers—4 years (14–18).

1. Half the expenditure incurred in a given year in payments to the Head Teacher of the Elementary School in respect of instruction and training, subject to a limit of £4 for each Pupil Teacher.
2. Half the expenditure incurred in providing supplementary instruction, again subject to a limit of £4 per annum for each Pupil Teacher.
3. A final grant of £10 as for Bursars.
4. A final grant of £2 as for Bursars.

Note. The Board also approved and aided by grants various schemes other than the above, assessing the grant specially in each case.

It is not claimed that the figures in the accompanying table represent the actual cost in any particular area, much less the average cost for the whole country. Variations of expenditure under each of the different heads are so numerous and so wide that the figure for one area might be wholly inapplicable to any other, and to determine the average cost of preliminary education and training for the whole country would be a task of considerable difficulty. But that the estimates are conservative will be evident if the figures for Rural Pupil Teachers, for example, are compared with others arrived at in a different way. Below are given details

[1] For separate Pupil Teacher Centres in respect of which the grant would be less than £350 the Board of Education could make up the grant to that figure.

COMPARATIVE COST OF DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF PRELIMINARY EDUCATION AND TRAINING.

Bursar and Student Teacher. Usual Age.	Total Cost.	Grants.	*Two-Year Pupil Teacher.*	Total Cost.	Grants.	*Four-Year Pupil Teacher.*	Total Cost.	Grants.
	£	£		£	£		£	£
13–14 Secondary School as Pupil (3 years) [1]	28	7						
14–15 Secondary School as Pupil (3 years) [1]	28	7	Secondary School or	28	7	Head Teacher		
15–16 Secondary School as Pupil (3 years) [1]	28	7	Preparatory Class (2 years)	28	7	4 years at £8 per annum	32	16
16–17 Bursar Year	28	7	Instruction at Secondary			Supplementary Instruction		
17–18 Student Teacher [2] (three-fifths average salary of £40)	24	*24	School or Centre for about two-thirds of time (2 years)	38	7	4 years at £8 per annum	32	16
Maintenance, say 4 years at £10	40	20	1st year average salary [3]	20	*12	Average Salary 4 years at £18		
			2nd year average salary	24	*14	per annum	72	*43
Travelling, &c. . .	4	2	. . . . .	4	2	. . . . .	4	2
	180	74		142	49		140	77
Final Grant, Board of Education	—	10	. . . . .	—	10	. . . . .	—	10
	£180	£84		£142	£59		£140	£87
Approximate Annual Cost and Grant	£36	£17	. . . . .	£35	£15	. . . . .	£35	£22

[1] In a large number of cases the intending bursar is in the Secondary School from the age of eleven, thus increasing the cost to public funds by some £14 for each year from eleven to thirteen, this amount representing approximately the difference between the cost of education at a Secondary and an Elementary School.

[2] A Student Teacher may count in the staff allowance for twenty scholars, but some Authorities make no use of this provision and call the salary a maintenance allowance. The estimate of three-fifths in the table seems a fair compromise. The Student Teacher is in the school for four-fifths of his time, but is probably of value as a teacher for only half this period, or two-fifths of his time, at most.

[3] Pupil teachers do not normally count on the staff of a school and the whole of the average salary is here regarded as equivalent to a maintenance allowance.

* The Board of Education pays up to three-fifths of all salaries.

as to the approximate Cost of Rural Pupil Teacher Schemes in four typical County areas:

	A	*B*	*C*	*D*
	£	£	£	£
Payments to Head Teachers	450	1,520	480	—
,, for further Instruction	850	1,080	700	—
,, for Books	50	274		
,, for Travelling Expenses	600	530	260	—
Total Cost of Scheme	1,950	3,404	1,440	2,000
Number of Pupil Teachers	90	97	74	98
	£	£	£	£
Average Annual Cost per Pupil Teacher	21	35	19	20
Average Annual Salary (Girls)[1]	7[2]	18	27	22
Total Average Annual Cost per Pupil Teacher	28	53	46	42

In estimating the true average cost per student of these schemes, account must be taken of the numbers who do not succeed in completing their course. We have seen that in 1919–20 upwards of 30 per cent. failed to pass the Preliminary Examination. In the more successful areas a rather lower percentage of failures is found, and a few Pupil Teachers may pass the examination in a subsequent year. If for these we make the very liberal allowance of 10 per cent., so reducing the proportion of unsuccessful candidates to 20 per cent., the average annual cost of producing one adult teacher under the four schemes for which figures are given above becomes approximately £36, £66, £57, £52, amounts which we venture to suggest would go a long way towards meeting the cost of overcoming any difficulties involved in arranging for attendance at a Secondary School.[3]

Finally, it should be remembered that of the failures a certain proportion find employment in the schools as Supplementary Teachers, and may for some years continue to be aided by grants in their endeavours to qualify as Uncertificated Teachers.

[1] Most of the Rural Pupil Teachers are Girls. For Boys the salaries would average £4 or £5 per annum more at least.

[2] The salaries paid in this area are extremely low.

[3] If the same allowance for wastage were made in respect of Bursars and Two-Year Pupil Teachers who do not pass a qualifying examination, the average annual cost of each adult teacher produced under these schemes would be approximately £43 and £38 respectively. As a matter of fact the wastage is not so great among these as among Rural Pupil Teachers. Cf p. 65, note 1.

It is sometimes urged that the whole cost of the preliminary education of intending teachers should be borne by the Central Authority, inasmuch as to find recruits and educate them is to perform a national service. Under the existing system there is some justification for the suggestion, particularly as a number of Education Authorities do very little in this direction, and are content to draw their staffs from other areas. If, however, all intending teachers were required to receive a full-time and complete secondary education, and all financial inducements of the nature of special scholarships granted to intending teachers were taken away, the problem of the preliminary education of the teacher would be merged in the larger and more important problem of the provision of improved facilities for secondary education for all young people in the area, and any need for special financial treatment of the one as distinct from the other would disappear.

The financial position of Training Institutions. By far the greater part of the cost of educating and training teachers is incurred in giving them professional training. Thus almost the whole of the total which we originally quoted (£1,603,000), with the exception of a small percentage of the estimated expenditure of Local Education Authorities, would be used in aiding either training institutions or students attending them, and we must examine more closely the ways in which it is expended. It will be convenient to deal with the amounts making up this total in the reverse order to that in which they are given on p. 233, and the last of them, the sum of £138,000, paid by way of personal grants to students in Day Training Colleges, may be speedily disposed of. These grants were fixed in 1918 at £20 per academic year for each man student and £15 for each woman student. In 1919 they were increased by 33⅓ per cent., and in 1920 by 50 per cent. of the original amounts in order to meet the increased cost of living.[1] Recently the Board of Education has notified its intention of returning to the 1919 figures for the session 1922–3.[2] Grants of this kind are paid in a lump sum to the Authorities of Day Training Colleges, who in turn pay them to the students.

[1] *Regulations for the Training of Teachers*, 1921, Section 81 (*c*), and Circular 1271.

[2] *Training of Teachers (Amending) Regulations* (No. 3), 1922, Section 2.

The second of the amounts included in our total consists of grants payable to Training Colleges maintained by Voluntary Bodies and by Universities and University Colleges. These were estimated as amounting in 1921–2 to £872,000, and form the main source of income of these institutions. No summary of their accounts has been published by the Board since 1912–13, but by an examination of a number of recent Balance Sheets of individual Colleges and Departments it is possible to form some idea of the proportion of income from this and other sources, as well as to determine the main items of expenditure. Summaries of the Balance Sheets of representative Voluntary Training Colleges, all residential, are given in the Appendix,[1] from which it will be seen that their income for the year in question was derived from three main sources, grants, fees, and voluntary contributions. Income from endowments is small and confined to a few Colleges. The following table gives an idea of the approximate proportion of income derived from each source. Details for all Voluntary Training Colleges in 1912–13 are given for purposes of comparison.[2]

	For all Colleges.	*Average of six Colleges.*	
	1912–13.	*1919–20.*	*1920–1.*
Grants from the Board of Education .	72%	78%	74%
Students' fees	20%	15%	18%
Voluntary contributions . . .	5%	4%	4%
Other sources	3%	3%	4%

A similar analysis of expenditure shows that with variations for individual Colleges the main items of expenditure are:

	For all Colleges.	*Average of six Colleges.*	
	1912–13.	*1919–20.*	*1920–1.*
Salaries of Teachers	26%	27%	29%
Other expenses in respect of Training and Instruction . . .	14%	11%	11%
Administration	2%	2%	1·5%
Maintenance of premises . . .	19%	21%	25%
Household and medical expenses of Staff and Students . . .	31%	35%	30·5%
Miscellaneous payments—rents, interest on loans, &c.	8%	4%	3%

[1] Appendix C, p. 433.

[2] The percentages in column 1 are calculated from *B. of E. Statistics*, 1912–13, Table 160. In calculating the percentages for 1919–20–21 only the accounts of those Colleges have been selected which are free from abnormal items either of receipt or expenditure. Hence the smallness of the number.

The financial position of Voluntary Training Colleges during the war was exceptional. Most of the men's Colleges were closed, and students who were exempt from Military Service were concentrated in one or two Colleges. Most of the women's Colleges were able to keep open, though some had to be temporarily transferred to other premises. In all cases where a decline in the number of students due to the war rendered the financial position of an institution precarious, the Board of Education agreed to pay a supplementary grant sufficient to tide over each year. Later, in 1918, grants were readjusted, and the amounts were progressively increased in 1919 and 1920.[1] Now, with a decline in the cost of living and the pressure of economists, the scale of grants is beginning to fall and the Colleges are being faced with the most difficult problem they have had to solve for many years.

Recent years have brought increases in expenditure in two items in particular—salaries and maintenance. The need for better remuneration for College staffs became evident when by the introduction of improved Scales of Salary numbers of teachers in Elementary Schools were raised to salaries in excess of those paid to lecturers in Training Colleges, and when a Departmental Committee dealt with the salaries of Teachers in Secondary and Technical Schools they included also lecturers in Training Institutions. For these they recommended rates of payment rather better than those for ordinary posts in Secondary Schools and more nearly equivalent to the salaries for the better posts in these schools, hoping thereby to facilitate interchange between the two types of educational institution.[2] Within the last few years most Colleges have granted to their staffs salaries at least equal to the Burnham Scale for Secondary School Teachers, resulting in a considerable increase in the amount of this item of expenditure. In one small women's College, for example, payments for salaries have risen from £967 in 1917 to £1,290 in 1919, an increase approximately of 33⅓ per cent. The cost of maintenance of the students has increased much in the same way, and the maintenance of premises (including repairs) has also become more costly.

Against these increased costs must be set the larger grants

[1] See p. 239.

[2] Appendix C, p. 441.

from the Central Authority, and, in most cases, additional receipts from students' fees. These prior to 1918 averaged something like £20 to £25 for the two years, but have latterly been increased, and now average more nearly £45 to £55 for the same period. The third source of income—voluntary donations and endowments—shows for many Colleges an increase in actual amount, though not necessarily in the proportion which it bears to the total income, but this increase is almost entirely due to special efforts made by the organizations maintaining the Colleges in order to tide them over a critical period. Thus, owing principally to the efforts of the National Society, the Church of England Training Colleges became federated in 1918 under a Board of Supervision. This Board set to work to raise a special Sustentation Fund, and was able by July 1921 to distribute £33,164 in grants to various Colleges for annual maintenance, in addition to £5,800 in grants towards capital expenditure.[1] In the same way the British and Foreign School Society and the Roman Catholic Education Society found it necessary to make special grants-in-aid to their Colleges. Practically all the normal income from endowments and donations has in the past been required to maintain the premises of the Colleges in a satisfactory condition, and as it is doubtful whether additional support on the present scale can be maintained and grants from the Central Authority are declining, adverse balances are likely to increase and the financial position of the majority of Voluntary Training Colleges to become even more difficult.

Training Departments of Universities and of University Colleges are non-residential, though Hostels attached to them are increasing in number. Their accounts present certain features calling for special notice. In addition to grants from the Board of Education and fees from students, most of them are in receipt of contributions from Local Education Authorities and from the Universities or University Colleges of which they form a Department. In 1911–12 contributions from the former amounted to £10,998, and from the latter to £10,917, the two together forming almost 25 per cent. of the total receipts of all Training Departments.[2] In addition to these items there appear also in some of the Balance Sheets the personal grants conveyed

[1] *National Society. Annual Report*, 1922, pp. 29–31.
[2] *B. of E. Financial Statistics*, 1911–12–13, Table 160, pp. 164 and 252.

to the students through the medium of the Department, which figure therefore on both sides of the account. Among the payments of Training Departments, as distinct from the Hostels, for which separate accounts are kept, those for Household and Medical expenses are necessarily small, but a special item which does not normally appear in the accounts of other institutions [1] is the payment of fees made to the University in respect of the general education of students who are following degree courses. Grants from the Central Authority in aid of these amounted in 1911–12 to £4,379,[2] but in recent years, with the introduction of the Four-Year Course and an increase in the number of students in training, these payments have greatly increased, and have in some cases equalled and indeed exceeded the amounts received by way of contribution from the University. The summaries given below (p. 434) of the latest published accounts of the Cambridge and Birmingham Training Departments will illustrate these points. The position at Birmingham is hardly so simple as at Cambridge on account of the large proportion of Two-Year Students, but even here the sum transferred to the General Income account of the University was £2,370, an amount which, if not sufficient to cover all the financial assistance received from that source, represented a substantial sum by way of repayment. The latest report of the Oxford Training Department shows that, given an adequate number of students, the Department may be a financial gain to the University and its constituent Colleges. Thus during 1921 the amount paid into the University Chest by the Department on behalf of students for fees and dues alone was £1,884, and just under £6,000 was paid to Colleges during the same period, whereas the amount contributed from the University Chest towards the cost of the Department was considerably less than £1,000.[3]

Grants paid by the Board of Education to Training Colleges and Training Departments are calculated on the basis of regulations framed in 1918, though the actual amounts have since been revised. These regulations follow the distinction established in 1910 between grants in respect of instruction and grants in

[1] A few Voluntary Training Colleges now take Four-Year Students in respect of whom fees are paid to a University.

[2] *B. of E. Financial Statistics*, 1911–12–13, Table 159, pp. 163 and 251.

[3] Report of Delegacy for the Training of Teachers, 1921: *Oxford University Gazette*, 8 June 1922.

respect of maintenance of students.[1] Thus under the first of these headings the Board pays :

a. For Four-Year Students.

i. During the first three years a grant equivalent to such University fees as may be approved, and also a grant for general supervision by the Training Department.

ii. For the Fourth Year a grant of £35.

The grant in aid of University fees varies with the nature of the course of study followed by the student : the supervision allowance is approximately £5 per annum.

b. For Two-Year Students in Elementary Training Colleges and for Students in Domestic Science Schools a grant of £20 for each complete year. This figure has been progressively increased since 1918, first by an amount not exceeding £5 and subsequently by an amount not exceeding £10. Circular 1271 (22nd July 1922) fixed the amount for 1922–3 at £30 and £28 for men and women respectively.

c. For Students who have not signed the Board's Declaration and who are following an approved course in preparation for Secondary Teaching in a University Training Department or Secondary Training College, the same grant is payable as for Two-Year Students in Elementary Training Colleges, but the total grant is limited to £600. If the training is given at a Secondary School grants will be paid to the school at the rate of £40 for the first student, £30 for the second, and £20 for the third teacher in training recognized at any one time in a single school.

Maintenance Grants are payable for all students who declare their intention of serving in a State-aided school. The amounts for other than Day Students were fixed in 1918 at the uniform rates of £35 per annum for each man student resident in a Training College or Hostel, and £28 for each woman student. Like the grants to Day Students, these were increased by an amount not exceeding 33⅓ per cent. in 1919, and 50 per cent. in 1920, and are now returning to the 1919 figure. These grants are paid to the Training College or Training Department, and where the students are resident in a Hostel are transferred to the Hostel account.

We come now to the third sum included in our original total, the amount expended by Local Education Authorities on the

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1910–11, p. 67.

Training of Teachers other than Pupil Teachers (£593,000). From the list of Training Colleges given in the Appendix it will be seen that twenty-two of these are maintained by Counties or County Boroughs in addition to nine out of the fourteen Domestic Science Schools. For these Authorities the greater part of the expenditure on teacher training is in respect of such Colleges. Other Authorities make considerable grants to students to aid them in the payment of College fees, and a number of the more progressive make provision for the further education and training of teachers in service. Even so their total expenditure is much smaller than that of a Local Education Authority maintaining a Training College.

Official statistics are not sufficiently informative to enable us to divide the total of £593,000 among these various items, but the following details are of interest. Dividing the total among those types of Local Authority which have power to undertake Higher Education, we find the expenditure of each group to be as follows:

	£
London	169,096
Counties (other than London)	227,814
County Boroughs	196,687
	593,597

And if we compare the expenditure of a few Authorities which maintain Training Colleges with those of others which do not, we can better appreciate the difference between them.

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1921–2 OF CERTAIN LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES ON THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OTHER THAN PUPIL TEACHERS

Maintaining Training Colleges.		*Not Maintaining Training Colleges.*	
Counties.			
	£		£
Cheshire	10,406	Warwickshire	700
Herefordshire	6,710	Essex	400
Yorkshire West Riding	24,700	Northumberland	150
County Boroughs.			
	£		£
Brighton	8,369	Eastbourne	270
Dudley	6,424	Barrow-in-Furness	500
Kingston-upon-Hull	14,759	Preston	240

The highest expenditure of any County maintaining a Training College was that of Durham, estimated to amount in 1921–2

to £76,750, while the County Borough of Leeds in the same year expected to spend £56,562. The combined expenditure of all such Authorities in England and Wales was estimated to amount in the same year to no less than 84 per cent. of the total for all Local Education Authorities.[1]

The income and expenditure account of a Training College maintained by a Local Education Authority prior to the Act of 1918 was almost strictly comparable with that of a Voluntary Training College, with the difference that, instead of a small and somewhat uncertain proportion of income from donations was a sum of money from the rates raised by the Authority for the purposes of Higher Education. This amount was comparatively small, for 90 to 95 per cent. of the cost of maintaining the Colleges was met by Government grants and students' fees. Recently, however, the position has changed, for, in calculating the amount of State-aid to which the Local Education Authority is entitled for Higher Education in respect of the financial year 1921–2, the Board of Education has included as part of the Authority's expenditure the amount expended on the Training of Teachers. According to earlier Grant Regulations the Authority stood to receive about 75 per cent. of its total expenditure under this head; under the new arrangement the proportion available from grants is reduced to 50 per cent. of the Authority's expenditure after deducting students' fees; the balance has to be met from the rates. Mainly because of these changes the amount to be contributed from rates by Local Authorities maintaining their own Colleges for the Training of Teachers has been greatly increased, and something approaching an impasse has arisen. The provision of additional grants during the current year is only a temporary expedient.[2]

A few figures will make the position clearer. The Brighton Education Committee, for example, maintain a Municipal Training College for women. During the financial year 1920–1 the cost of this institution to the ratepayers of the County Borough was £3,003; during 1922–3 it is estimated that £3,576

[1] *B. of E. Estimates of the Expenditure of Education Authorities in the Financial Year* 1921–2, Cmd. 1423, pp. 20–7.

[2] These grants are £30 in respect of each resident student and £10 for each day student from outside the area of the Authority. For students from the Authority's own area the additional amounts are £12 and £4 respectively. *B. of E. Circular.*

will have to be found by the Education Committee. An even more striking instance is that of the Domestic Science School maintained by the Gloucestershire Education Committee. In this case during 1920–1 the County Education Committee provided the sum of £2,095 towards the upkeep of the School, an amount which, owing to the operation of the new ruling of the Board of Education, had to be increased in 1921–2 to £4,900. In still a third instance the contribution from the local rates increased from £702 in 1920–1 to £2,196 in 1921–2, that is, to more than treble the amount for the preceding year.[1]

At first sight there may appear to be nothing in the situation more anomalous than there is in reference to the provision of, say, Secondary or any other form of Higher Education. The cases, however, are not parallel, and we must remind ourselves of the circumstances under which Council Training Colleges arose. Shortly after the Education Act of 1902 the Board of Education offered considerable inducements to Local Education Authorities to build and equip Training Colleges in their areas, promising grants towards capital expenditure up to a maximum of 75 per cent., and the provision of adequate maintenance grants upon a national basis. The understanding throughout was that the bulk of the cost both of buildings and maintenance should fall upon the Central Authority on account of the national character of the work which the Colleges were to do. The Board, moreover, steadily advocated an increase in the number of non-local students in local Colleges, and figures recently quoted for Leeds City Training College give the percentage of non-Leeds students for the past seven years as 11·67, 13·23, 13·13, 13·98, 15·62, 10·03, 5·28.[2] The same writer estimated that there are at least 5 per cent. of non-local students in every College maintained by a Local Education Authority, but figures for other Council Colleges seem to indicate that the actual proportion has hitherto been well above this figure, and more nearly 10 to 15 per cent. For this reason the action of the Board of Education is regarded as a reversal of policy, and by treating the

[1] Figures taken from L. E. A. Statements of Accounts and Estimates. The Leeds City Training College in the past three years cost the ratepayers £46,000; in 1922 the figure was £26,331. Report of meetings of Education Committee and of City Council, *Schoolmaster*, 29 Dec. 1922; 12 Jan. 1923.

[2] *The Times Educational Supplement*, 17 March 1921, p. 117. Figures verified by reference to the Local Education Authority.

Training Colleges for grant purposes as though they were purely local institutions, they have aroused great dissatisfaction among those Education Authorities who maintain them. The London Education Committee, for example, has shown its objection to the arrangement whereby it has to bear so great a share of educating and training non-London teachers, by raising the fees for students from other areas to a figure more nearly approaching the actual cost of training and maintenance. Thus students outside the area of the London County Council must now pay a tuition fee of £40 per annum if non-resident, and a total fee of £120 per annum if resident. The Gloucestershire Education Committee has also raised the fees for the Gloucester School of Domestic Science to an amount calculated to make the College self-supporting, £54 per annum being now charged for tuition and £66 for maintenance. Furthermore, Local Education Authorities maintaining Colleges are agreed that unless more satisfactory arrangements can be made by the Board it will be necessary to close the Colleges.

Two suggestions [1] have been put forward for overcoming the difficulty. The first of these was contained in a Circular Letter sent by the Board of Education to Local Education Authorities in April 1921,[2] and was to the effect that Training Colleges should remain under present management, but that each Local Education Authority should be responsible to the Training College Authority for the whole annual cost of training students from its area. Some portion of this cost it would, of course, have power to recover from the students by way of fees, but the essential feature of the arrangement would be that none of the cost of outside students would fall on the Authority maintaining the Training College. For a scheme of voluntary co-operation of this kind to be complete it would be necessary for each Local Education Authority to undertake to produce annually a sufficient number of teachers to meet its own requirements, and either to make arrangements for their professional training with one or other of the Authorities maintaining Colleges, or if the number of students were sufficient and accommodation not otherwise available, provide the necessary facilities itself. In

[1] Not including the obvious suggestion that a return should be made to Substantive Grants for Council Colleges.

[2] *Circular 1211.*

the former case it would probably be found convenient to arrange for a number of places in one or more Training Colleges to be reserved, just as the Education Committees of Kent and Surrey have in recent years arranged for the reservation of places at Goldsmiths' College, London. The basis of contribution from external Authorities might be calculated on the exact number of students in training in a given year, or fixed at an annual figure based on the number of places reserved. By this means financial responsibility would be more equitably shared, but control would remain in the hands of the Authority providing the College.

While designed in the first place to bring about a co-ordination of the efforts and a pooling of the resources of Local Education Authorities, a scheme of this kind might with modifications be extended to include University Training Departments and Voluntary Training Colleges. Here, however, its limitations become more obvious, for it would be in the interests of administrative convenience to 'localize' all Training Colleges, a policy which would accentuate the inbreeding which already exists. From the point of view of development also the tendency would probably be to increase the number of Training Colleges maintained by Local Education Authorities, rather than facilities at Universities, and to diminish the number of Voluntary Colleges. As to the advisability of such diminution there will naturally be a wide difference of opinion, and to enter into the question fully here would take us too far from our present topic.

Co-operation between certain types of Local Education Authority for various purposes was rendered necessary in connexion with Higher Education by the Act of 1902. Counties and County Boroughs have co-operated in this way with neighbouring Authorities not having the like powers. Co-operation between the larger Authorities has been less frequent,[1] but sufficient to justify the inclusion of a permissive clause in the Education Act, 1918, allowing combination or co-operation for purposes to be mutually agreed upon.[2] Judging by schemes prepared for submission to the Board of Education, only a small proportion of Local Education Authorities show any keenness to avail themselves of this permission, and the proceedings at

[1] For examples see p. 401, note 2, and p. 431.

[2] Education Act, 1918, Section 6.

a Conference summoned by the Board of Education to consider this method of finding a solution to the Training College difficulty made it quite clear that in practice any such combination on a large scale would be difficult to bring about.[1] At this Conference there were present representatives of the County Councils Association, the Association of Education Committees, the London County Council, and the Association of Municipal Corporations, and they were unanimous in their opinion that for the training of teachers the principle of voluntary co-operation and contribution as between Local Education Authorities on the lines suggested by the Board of Education could not be successfully carried out. To the complaint of the Authorities maintaining Colleges (most of them County Boroughs), that they bear an undue share of the cost of professional training, the County Authorities replied that they bring forward and prepare most of the candidates.[2] They urged therefore that as a *quid pro quo* they should be allowed to send students to Council Colleges outside their areas for the fees charged to local students. No agreement was reached, and the Board of Education have now referred the whole question to a Departmental Committee.

An alternative suggestion which has been put forward is that England, like Scotland, should set up Provincial Committees for the Training of Teachers. The origin and general character of the Scottish Provincial Committees and of the National Committee set up by the Minute of 1920 have already been indicated,[3] but it will be useful to examine their working from the point of view of finance. For this the National Committee, consisting, be it remembered, of representatives of Education Authorities, is now responsible. To it are paid all grants from the Central Authority, students' fees, and contributions from Local Education Authorities, as well as any moneys accruing from the sale of buildings which are no longer needed by the Provincial Committees. Out of the income derived from these sources the Provincial Committees are supplied with the sums necessary for carrying on their work, and additional or improved premises are provided where needed. A summary of the First

[1] *The Times Educational Supplement*, 16 July 1921, p. 326.

[2] In 1919–20, County Authorities were educating more than double the number of Bursars, Student Teachers, and Pupil Teachers found in urban areas.

[3] Ch. v. p. 108.

Annual Statement of the National Committee is inserted in the Appendix [1] together with certain other details which will serve to illustrate the financial side of the Scottish training system.

The first estimate of Income and Expenditure prepared by the National Committee was based upon the previous experience of the various Provincial Committees, the whole of whose 'powers, duties, and responsibilities . . . debts, liabilities, funds, properties, and other effects . . . lecturers, teachers, and other officers' were transferred to the National Committee on the 1st August 1920. Allowance was made in the estimate for urgently needed increases in salaries and for the possible transfer of the three remaining Denominational Training Colleges, a transfer which took place shortly afterwards. After calculating the possible income from grants and fees, the Committee found it necessary to fix the contributions which Local Education Authorities were required to make under Section 9 (3) of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918, at the rate of £6 per fully qualified teacher employed by each Authority. This rate has been progressively reduced in succeeding years to £4 and £3, and the estimate for the year ending 31st July 1924 places the rate of contribution at £2.[2]

The relations between the National Committee and the bodies providing the transferred Colleges were adjusted in such a way that while the former agreed to meet all expenses connected with the actual training of the students, the latter undertook to maintain suitable accommodation for the purpose.[3]

It is perhaps a little early in the history of this new development in Scottish education to venture any definite judgement as to its merits or demerits, but it seems at least to present the very great advantage of providing a means of co-ordinating all facilities for teacher training, and ensuring that the national aspects of the question shall not be lost sight of. That this is not merely an administrative gain is shown by the fact that the National Committee has already instituted inquiries with a view to ensuring that training courses shall, if necessary, be modified so as to meet with the approval of teachers of experience, and

[1] Appendix C, pp. 435–6.
[2] National Committee for the Training of Teachers, Annual Reports.
[3] For a copy of the conditions of transfer see Appendix D, pp. 453–4.

so as to render them more serviceable for the purposes for which they are designed. To one of these inquiries we have already had occasion to refer.[1]

The suggestion for the establishment of Provincial Councils has never in this country met with the unanimous support of Local Education Authorities. In 1913, for example, when introducing an abortive one-clause Bill in the House of Commons, the then President of the Board of Education outlined the future policy of his Department. Among other reforms he proposed to establish Advisory Provincial Councils in grouped areas, empowered to undertake such duties as might be delegated to them by Local Authorities, for example, the creation and management of Training Colleges, the supply of teachers, the control of examinations, and the co-ordination of the work in Higher Technical Schools and Universities.[2] At the time the suggestion received little support, and its revival with reference to teacher training finds little favour even now with Local Education Authorities. The twenty years that have elapsed since the Act of 1902 have seen a continuous strengthening of that local 'patriotism' and independence which had even then become a characteristic feature of English public life, and unless some means can be found of evolving a national system of teacher training which recognizes this desire for local autonomy any attempt of this kind seems even now to be doomed to failure.

It should always be remembered that in 1905 when Provincial Committees for the Training of Teachers were formed, Scotland in the matter of educational administration was where England and Wales stood before the Act of 1902. The work of the then existing Training Colleges (eight only in number and all denominational) lay entirely outside the sphere of the numerous School Boards and other bodies of Managers and Trustees responsible for the various types of educational provision. An increase in training facilities was urgently needed, and it was felt to be necessary to link up the training of teachers with the Universities: hence the comparative ease with which the step was taken. Some such readjustment of our own training system would undoubtedly have been more easily made prior to the Act of 1902 than at any subsequent date, but inasmuch as developments have been in the direction of the

[1] Ch. viii, p. 188. [2] *Hansard*, 22 July 1913.

provision of facilities for professional training by Local Education Authorities, the position to-day is rather different. That some method of dealing on a national basis with the many problems which arise in this connexion is needed is generally agreed, and a National Committee, representative of those types of authority responsible for Higher Education, and for teacher training as part of this, would probably be more acceptable than Provincial Councils. No doubt it would be particularly difficult to determine the nature and extent of its executive powers and its relation to the various bodies providing training facilities, but these difficulties do not seem to be insurmountable. Certainly it would be wiser to approach the problem at first from the national rather than the provincial standpoint. The recent adjustment of teachers' salaries on something approaching a national basis should encourage a freer flow of teachers from one part of the country to another, and it is important that nothing should be done to arrest it. There are other problems too awaiting solution which have a direct bearing upon the future of teacher training. Such are, for example, the relation of Training Institutions to Universities and of Universities themselves to Local Education Authorities. To the first of these we shall return later. In each case there is need for careful consideration as to whether the solution which would best meet the case should be national or provincial; certainly whatever modifications of the existing system may ultimately prove to be necessary it is important that the problem should first be viewed from the point of view of the country as a whole.

Grants in Aid of the Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools have already been mentioned,[1] and, when made to University Training Departments undertaking this work, are usually included with the grants received by the Department in respect of the Training of Elementary Teachers. For purely Secondary Training Colleges or Departments the position is somewhat different. In the case of those closely associated with Secondary Schools, such as St. Mary's College, Lancaster Gate (London), the finance of the Department cannot be considered apart from that of the School, and as, moreover, in this particular case, neither the students in training nor the School have in the past been in receipt of grants from the Board of

[1] Ch. i, p. 32, and *supra*, p. 244.

Education, the situation is not affected by the various changes in the grant system which mean so much for the institutions with which we have hitherto been concerned. A certain proportion of the students in the other Secondary Training Colleges for women are in receipt of maintenance grants, and the Colleges themselves receive grants for tuition. The fees are of course much higher than in an Elementary Training College, varying from £30 to £40 per annum for non-resident and £95 to £140 for resident students. The proportion of income from fees in 1920–1 in one such College was 53 per cent. as against 22 per cent. received from grants. Their position is therefore rather different from that of the Elementary Training College.[1] For them the most serious factor has been a diminution in the number of students in training, and it is interesting to note that such a diminution is one of the causes which have influenced the Council of Bedford College for Women (University of London) in closing the Training Department. This Department had for many years confined itself to a post-graduate course for specialist teachers in Secondary Schools, and before the war had upwards of forty students. The number of students during the session 1921–2, the last of this particular department, was only twenty-one.

Practically all teacher-training institutions, Elementary and Secondary, which derive the greater part of their income from grants and fees, depend for their financial stability on the number of students in training. For a year or two several Training Colleges for men have been allowed by the Board of Education to receive more than the normal number of students. Educationally there are serious objections to any increase of this kind without additions also to the staff and improved accommodation, but for the Colleges it has proved financially advantageous. Now that the influx of numbers of men whose training had been interrupted by the war, and of other groups of ex-Service men, is coming to an end, the men's Colleges find themselves faced with the possibility of carrying on their work with a smaller number of students and proportionately smaller receipts from grant. For them the most urgent problem is probably the maintenance of a regular and sufficient supply of students entering College, and to this and other questions connected with the supply of teachers we shall presently turn our attention.

[1] Cf. p. 240.

Building Grants. Hitherto in our consideration of Training College finance, we have passed by the question of building and other grants in aid of premises. In the historical survey in Chapter I we called attention to the grants made for building purposes between 1839 and 1860.[1] For England and Wales these amounted to £118,627 7*s.* 9*d.*, and during the same period the amount subscribed for building purposes by the various denominations responsible for the Colleges was £278,842 13*s.* 7*d.*[2] From 1860 to 1904 no assistance other than grants for the maintenance and tuition of students was given by the Central Authority, but in the latter year a Treasury grant was offered to Local Education Authorities providing new Colleges to the extent of £25 per place, or 25 per cent. of the total cost, whichever was the less.[3] This was intended as a stimulus to them to provide training facilities, but as the inducement proved insufficient, the limit was raised in 1906 to 75 per cent. of the total expenditure,[4] and a regulation was introduced enabling the Board to limit the amount of grant if excessive expenditure was incurred. In 1909 it was found advisable to vary the grant for buildings of different types, and to introduce a regulation enabling the Board to limit the grant, if need be, to an amount calculated at a fixed rate for each place provided for a recognized student. By further modification of the Regulations, the Board took power to make grants also to Universities or University Colleges in aid of the provision of hostels, and to Local Education Authorities in aid of erecting or renting temporary premises.[5] The total amount paid under all these headings from 1906 to the 31st March 1913 was £456,981 14*s.* 3*d.*, of which £446,165 5*s.* represented grants in aid of the provision of premises, and £10,816 9*s.* 3*d.* in aid of rent. In the following year, 1913–14, £96,841 was paid in Building Grants, the largest amount in any one year. From that time onwards the intervention of the war rendered imperative the reduction of expenditure on large building schemes, and the grants have therefore steadily decreased. In 1919–20 only £310 was paid in respect of rent of temporary premises. By 1920 the total amount recorded

[1] Ch. i, p. 33. [2] *B. of E. Special Reports*, vol. ii, 1898, p. 528.
[3] *B. of E. Report*, 1904–5, p. 41.
[4] Ibid., 1906–7, p. 55.
[5] For Regulations in final form see *Regulations for the Training of Teachers*, 1918.

as paid in grants for premises was £814,201 2*s*. Fuller details are set out in the Appendix :[1] for the present these particular Grant Regulations are in abeyance.

The Cost of Professional Training. Returning to the question of the cost of professional training, we may venture one or two estimates of the average annual cost per student. Omitting the sum of £138,000 paid in grants to Day Students, the Geddes Committee estimate the cost to public funds to be £79 :[2] the inclusion of these grants would raise the figure to £86. No particulars as to the total expenditure of Training Colleges have been published by the Board of Education since 1912, but as some indication of the present cost we may make use of a few College Balance Sheets. The figures in the following table must be regarded merely as illustrations, because of the limited number of Colleges included, but they are sufficient to show to what extent the cost of training has increased. It will be clear to even the most casual reader that if we accept the contention that teacher training is a national rather than a local affair, the demand of Local Education Authorities and other authorities maintaining Colleges for the continuance of increased grants is at any rate not made without cause.

APPROXIMATE AVERAGE EXPENDITURE PER STUDENT, PER ANNUM, IN CERTAIN VOLUNTARY TRAINING COLLEGES

College.	*1912–13.*	*1919–20.*	*1920–1.*
		£	£
A. Men	—	58	79
B. ,,	—	104	103
C. ,,	—	81	—
D. ,,	—	85	—
E. Men and Women	—	—	113
F. Women	—	83	103
G. ,,	—	87	108
H. ,,	—	94	95
I. ,,	—	83	—
J. ,,	—	—	104
Gross average cost per student	56[3]	85	102
Average fee per student (estimated)	12	15	25
Net average cost per student	£44	£70	£77

[1] Appendix C, p. 435.

[2] *First Interim* (Geddes) *Report of Committee on National Expenditure*, Cmd. 1581, p. 116.

[3] For all Voluntary Training Colleges, *B. of E. Statistics*, 1912–13, Pt. I, Table 90 ; Pt. II, Table 160 (average calculated).

Balance sheets of Council Training Colleges and Hostels are not available in sufficient numbers for a similar calculation to be made of the average annual cost of training for students in these institutions, but from the amounts now being charged to non-local students we may obtain sufficient information for purposes of comparison. The London figures, already quoted (£40 for non-resident and £120 for resident students), are probably a little above the average. At Leeds and Brighton fees for tuition and residence for non-local students are now £80, while at Hereford, a residential Council College for women, the fee for outside students has been raised to £90, and we may probably regard the gross average cost in Colleges of this type as being approximately £100 to £110 per annum. For similar estimates of the cost of a Four-Year Course at a University Training Department we shall have to rely on rather more indirect evidence. It will be remembered that during the first three years the student pursues one or other of the ordinary University courses, and does not come fully under the control of the Training Department until his final year. There will therefore be little difference between the cost of his course and that of other students; this the recent Royal Commission on Oxford and Cambridge places at £149 and £144 per annum for a woman resident in a College at one or other of these Universities, and £156 and £145 for a man; for non-collegiate students the figures are £87 and £104 respectively. At the newer universities the cost will probably be about the same as for non-collegiate students at the older universities, and will therefore more nearly approximate to the figure for Training Colleges. It should be borne in mind, however, that estimates for University students are in all cases for a University year of from 25 to 30 weeks, whereas the Training College student is in residence for about 40 weeks in the year. The Four-Year Student, too, will need rather more books, and will probably have to meet other and more general items of expenditure not incurred by the Two-Year Student.

Considered merely from the point of view of total cost the Two-Year System must obviously be the less expensive, if only on account of the shorter duration of the course; but if we omit the Collegiate student at Oxford and Cambridge, the difference

in annual cost is not very great, and it should be remembered that there are defects in the provision made by Training Colleges which cannot be removed without a considerable addition to the annual expenditure. Staffs, in particular, need to be steadily improved in quality, and this cannot be brought about unless posts in Training Colleges are better paid and in other ways made more attractive. Another defect is the low standard of examination and in many Colleges of work also, for which a suggested remedy is the linking up of Training Colleges with Universities. This, too, would necessitate an improvement in the qualifications of staffs, and if it involved also an arrangement for the examination of students by the University or a Joint Committee representative of the College and the University would again entail additional annual expenditure. Thus the arrangement which we described [1] for linking up the Training Colleges at Chester, Warrington, and Edge Hill with Liverpool University involves an annual expenditure of approximately £100 for each of the three Colleges.

The statistical details for Scottish Training Centres which are given in Appendix C, p. 435, include figures showing the average cost per student per annum at each Training Centre and College, as well as the average for all combined. From these it would appear as though the cost of teacher training at most of the centres in Scotland were considerably less than the cost in this country, but an examination of the accounts upon which the averages are based shows that so far as maintenance is concerned only net expenditure in respect of students resident in hostels under the control of the Committee is included. Details given for these show that the average cost of maintenance per student in 1921–2 ranged from £36 to £49 per annum. To this should be added the average cost of training and expenses incidental thereto, amounting in 1921–2 to £50 per student per annum, making the gross annual cost about £100, or much the same as that of an English residential college. But for the high average cost of training at the St. Andrews and Dundee Centre, due to various circumstances of an exceptional and temporary character, this figure would be rather lower and would average more nearly £80 to £90 per student per annum, the approximate cost per

[1] Ch. iv, p. 100.

student at the majority of Training Colleges and Centres prior to the formation of the National Committee.

An interesting difference now exists between the Scottish method of financing the training of teachers and our own. Since 1920 the Scottish Education Department has gradually reduced the amount which it pays to the National Committee by way of grant from £46 for each man (£35 for a woman) to a uniform rate of £20. Not more than four grants of this amount will be paid in respect of any one student. These grants are towards the expenses of tuition and training, and in future no maintenance grants will be paid to the National Committee; under Section 4 (1) of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918, however, Local Education Authorities are empowered to assist any duly qualified person resident in their areas 'to enter or attend a University or Training College, or a Central Institution . . . or in special cases any other educational institution approved for the purpose by the Department'. Grants to students may be included in the total expenditure of Local Education Authorities approved for purposes of grant under Section 21 of the Act. It is from this source, therefore, that Scottish students may now obtain grants for maintenance and fees, help in paying the latter being also obtainable from the Carnegie Universities Trust by students following a combined University and Training Course.

Fees are payable according to a scale determined by the National Committee, and for Two-Year Students in respect of whom the Education Department pays grants are £20 for the full course. Other students may be required to pay an additional fee equal to the amount of the grant (£20 per annum). Students following a combined University Course concurrently with the Training Course require less tuition from the Training Centre, and the fees are proportionately less, being, for example, for a Four-Year Course of this kind only £10. In addition to this amount the student will also have to pay fees to the University.

The recent change in the method of paying grants in respect of Scottish students in training is of considerable significance. By it the intending teacher is placed on much the same footing as any other student receiving higher education at a central institution, and the general effect of the change has been to lessen the amount of financial assistance which he receives.

Under the earlier system grants for tuition and maintenance were made to the Provincial Committees on behalf of approved students, and there was little or no discrimination according to the financial position of individuals. Now that grants are to be made by the Local Education Authorities the amounts are smaller and vary according to the circumstances of the parents.

In Scotland, as in England, the advisability of providing financial assistance to intending teachers on so liberal a scale as has been customary in the past has been questioned. In Scotland the addition of grants from the Carnegie Universities Trust made the position of certain classes of students in training even more easy than in this country, and competent observers viewed with concern the effect upon the teaching profession. A similar question was raised indirectly by the Geddes Committee in their report. They pointed out that the non-resident student in training only contributes from £5 to £10 per annum towards the cost of his course, and the resident student about £30. These amounts should, they suggested, be increased so that students might bear a greater proportion of the cost than hitherto, a suggestion which, from sheer necessity, Training Colleges are already acting upon.

The policy of State-maintenance of teachers while in training has been for so many years a part of our system, and of most continental systems, that it is often accepted without question. Those who uphold it urge that in this way qualified teachers may be obtained for the schools, that a better selection may be made owing to the competition for the educational advantages which the training affords, and that financial inequalities between intending teachers may thus be equalized. The experience of this country during the past twenty years is sufficient to show that the supply of teachers depends on more ultimate factors than the provision of subsidies, and that without a high standard for admission a system of this kind succeeds rather in attracting less able and vigorous students who shrink from—or have failed in—the effort to enter other professions. Moreover, even with an approved standard for admission the provision of financial assistance on so liberal a scale would probably have the effect of diverting into the profession numbers of students who are not really fitted for teaching. The best test of

the suitability of a young person for a given profession, critics point out, is his readiness (or his parents' readiness) to make sacrifices so that he may enter it, and they suggest that a far better result would be obtained by utilizing the amount now expended in subsidies in improving conditions of pay and superannuation. It is urged, too, that few things have contributed so much to the relatively low status of the teaching profession as the bounty system which has grown up in the last fifty years, and, finally, doubt is expressed as to whether the providing of grants upon the same basis for all intending teachers is the best means of equalizing opportunity.

These widely differing views are due to fundamentally different conceptions of the position of teachers in the community. On account of their intimate connexion with the State there has been a strong tendency to regard them as Civil Servants (as indeed they are in France), and entitled to training with maintenance, as well as salary and superannuation at the expense of the State.[1] On the other hand, the view is rapidly gaining ground that teaching is essentially a profession, and that its members should be accorded a status equal to that of other learned professions—the Church, law, medicine. In addition to adequate remuneration, higher standards, improved status, and more self-government, the latter view involves also the withdrawal of the artificial supports and bounties which have so long prevailed. This the more enlightened teachers readily admit, and welcome the removal of differentiations which now exist in favour of teachers. Changes in this direction are being made by one or two Education Committees in connexion with the arrangements for preliminary education, and the pressure of economy, too, is bringing about a reduction in the number and amount of training scholarships granted by Local Education Authorities to students passing into Training Colleges from their areas. Thus one Education Committee which formerly granted training scholarships fairly liberally now require evidence that the student cannot complete his training without assistance. There is an increasing tendency, too, towards developing another method of

[1] Sir Michael Sadler recently discussed the question of Civil Service for Teachers in an address to the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools at their Annual Meeting, 5 January 1923. For a full report see *Schoolmaster*, 12 January 1923, p. 69.

assistance—namely, the granting of temporary loans repayable in agreed instalments by the candidate out of the increased salary which he hopes to receive on the completion of his training course.[1]

It is neither wise nor possible hastily to scrap a system which has been so long established as has the present system of financing the professional training of teachers, but the fact that there are so many and so conflicting opinions is in itself sufficient evidence that a careful and impartial investigation should be made with a view to determining the principles upon which future policy should be based. For the first time in its history the teaching profession is in a fair way to receive adequate remuneration, and if obligations entered into in connexion with recent revisions of salary hold good, there is time for an inquiry to be made and for the views of all those who have had experience of the existing system to be obtained. So far as general education is concerned, we are convinced that the only sound policy is one that removes the differentiation between intending teachers and other students, not by a mere abolishing of all grants to teachers in respect of their general education, but by increasing the facilities for Secondary and University education irrespective of the future occupation of those who benefit by them. For professional training the issue is hardly so clear. It is true that in certain professions a lengthy period of study follows the attainment of the standard of Secondary or University education required for admission, but there are other equally attractive and remunerative walks of life in which this is not so, and salary may be earned while training and experience are being gained. It seems reasonable, therefore, that if the State requires from its teachers a period of professional training, it should provide the necessary facilities. The greater proportion of the cost of training (as distinct from maintenance) should be borne by the Central Authority, and though provision would still be necessary for the financial assistance of students, this assistance should, as a general rule, take the form of loans, obtainable preferably from Local Education Authorities. Once funds for this purpose were

[1] e. g. the Kent and Wolverhampton Education Committees have arranged to do this. The Kent scheme is very complete and the essential parts of it will be found in Appendix C, pp. 441–4.

established on an adequate basis, they would constantly be replenished by the repayments of students who had benefited by their existence.[1]

It is obvious that changes of this kind in the method of financing the professional training of teachers would, if applied to the existing system, result in a considerable reduction of expenditure on teachers as distinct from other students. But as the advisability of continuing the present system is seriously questioned, it will be better to defer any further consideration of questions of cost until possible modifications of the system have been considered.

[1] See estimate of expenditure under Kent Scheme, Appendix C, pp. 444–5.

XI

THE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS AND OF TRAINING FACILITIES

The various problems connected with the Supply of Teachers have been so frequently discussed that, were it not for their importance in connexion with teacher training, we should feel it necessary to apologize for introducing them here; moreover, some examination of them is necessary before we can estimate the adequacy of existing facilities and of contemplated or suggested developments. Statistical information available is unfortunately restricted to Elementary Schools, and under our present system of educational organization the magnitude of the problem is greater here than in any other part of the field. We shall therefore devote considerable attention to this aspect of the problem, particularly as much of what we have to say is applicable also to other types of school.

Let us first glance at statistics which show the number of new admissions to the ranks of Elementary Teachers for the the fifteen years from 1906 to 1920:

INTENDING TEACHERS FROM ALL SOURCES.[1] ENGLAND AND WALES, 1906–20.

Year.	*Boys.*	*Girls.*	*Total.*	*Year.*	*Boys.*	*Girls.*	*Total.*
1906	2,701	9,200	11,901	1914	1,251	5,117	6,368
1907	3,032	8,249	11,281	1915	1,304	5,743	7,047
1908	2,722	6,892	9,614	1916	1,097	5,447	6,544
1909	2,308	5,759	8,067	1917	928	5,332	6,260
1910	1,558	4,627	6,185	1918	809	5,279	6,088
1911	1,388	4,291	5,679	1919	1,094	5,510	6,604
1912	1,167	4,065	5,232	1920	1,350	6,507	7,857
1913	1,155	4,642	5,797				

For the moment it will suffice to call attention to the decline in the number of entrants to the profession from 1906 to 1918, the only exceptions being the years 1913 to 1915, when the figures show a slight increase, not, however, maintained in succeeding years. This decline appears to have been arrested at least for

[1] Fuller details for the same years will be found in a table in Appendix C p. 448.

a time, and the figures now show an upward tendency more marked in 1920 than in any previous year. In addition to those entering the profession through the normal channels, a certain number each year enter upon a course leading to the Certificate Examination, or are recognized as Certificated Teachers without having been previously recognized as Bursars, Student Teachers, or Pupil Teachers. Until recent years the number of these has been small; but in 1919–20 the Board estimated that in this way some 1,500 additional teachers might be forthcoming.[1] As a matter of fact, the actual number proved greater than this; for 2,203 persons (867 men and 1,336 women) not previously recognized as intending teachers obtained recognition as Uncertificated Teachers or entered upon a course of training leading to the Certificate. Several hundreds of these were admitted to courses of training under special arrangements made for ex-Service students and represent an addition to the profession of a special and temporary kind, of value as an offset to the losses due to the war.[2] With these the number of entrants to the profession has for the first time since 1907 reached a total of 10,000.

Modern practice in matters educational is to set up or extend a school system and then find the teachers. Such was the policy in England in 1870 and again in 1918. Such has been the policy in all countries, with possibly the sole exception of Finland, whose educational reformer, Cygnaeus, had the foresight to train teachers before establishing schools. The adequacy or inadequacy of the supply of teachers at any time is entirely relative, therefore, to the conditions as to demand then prevailing, and it will be necessary to examine the factors which determine this demand. These factors are of two kinds. On the one hand, we have the causes which bring about an extension of the school system—increase in child population,[3] the raising of the age limit for exemption from school attendance, and the improvement of facilities for education above the compulsory age limit—all of which increase the numbers for which teachers are required. A consideration of these is not possible here. On the other hand,

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1919–20, p. 53. [2] Ibid., 1920–1, pp. 47–8.

[3] A factor which will again become operative within the next few years owing to the increase of births in the years since the war.

we have those factors which affect the standards of staffing applied from time to time to the schools, and which cause a further modification in the numbers and in the qualifications of the teachers employed. This group of factors will be examined more in detail below. Meantime the following tables will convey some idea of the extent of the changes which have taken place in the Elementary School system since 1870:

EXPANSION AND STAFFING OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SYSTEM, 1874–1920 [1]

Date.	*No. of Schools.*	*Average Attendance.*	*No. of Adult Teachers.*	*No. of Certificated Teachers.*	*No. of Scholars per Adult Teacher.*	*No. of Scholars per Certificated Teacher.*
1874–5	13,217	1,873,180	23,653	20,940	77·6	87·7
1884–5	18,895	3,371,325	61,616	40,706	54·7	82·8
1894–5	19,739	4,325,030	92,578	52,941	46·6	81·5
1904–5	20,513	5,249,456	140,219	78,737	37·4	66·6
1913–14	21,053	5,392,579	165,901	109,156	31·9	49·4
1919–20	20,981	5,198,964	170,542 [2]	114,103	30·4	45·5

CHANGES IN NUMBERS AND QUALIFICATIONS OF STAFFS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 1874–1920 [3]

Date.	*Certificated.* *Trained.*	*Untrained.*	*Uncertificated.*	*Supplementary.*	*Student Teachers.*	*Totals.*
1874–5	14,872	6,071	2,713	—	—	23,656
1884–5	22,658	18,048	16,618	4,292	—	61,616
1894–5	30,639	22,302	27,961	11,678	—	92,580
1904–5	42,894	35,843	42,346	19,136	—	140,219
1913–14	66,906	42,250	41,407	13,367	1,971	165,901
1919–20	76,519	37,584	35,772	13,424	3,447	166,746 [4]

The factors which determined the standards of staffing prior to 1870 have in varying degrees remained operative ever since. They were two: the first, the funds available to the societies maintaining the schools, and the second, the general conditions for grant laid down by the Committee of Council. The Education

[1] *B. of E. Special Reports*, vol. i, pp. 46 and 48, Tables vii and viii; *Annual Report*, 1906–7, p. 41; *Statistics*, 1919–20, pp. 9 and 18, Tables 8 and 27.

[2] Includes a number of part-time teachers, see note 4 to next table.

[3] This table is given in an extended form in Appendix C, p. 447.

[4] In 1919–20 there were also serving in Elementary Schools 3,796 other teachers—teachers acting in a capacity for which they were not qualified under the Code, Teachers without any recognized standing under the Code, Monitors, Specialist Teachers, Practical Instruction Teachers. (*Statistics*, 1919–20, Notes, p. 167.)

Act of 1902 removed the great difference previously existing between Voluntary and Board Schools in respect of funds available for staffing purposes, though the richness or progressiveness of some Local Education Authorities as compared with others still leaves room for wide differences in standards of staffing due to financial causes. The second factor, namely the conditions as to staffing laid down by the Central Authority, has operated more continuously and uniformly than the other. As soon as there was anything like a supply of teachers sufficient to justify the setting up of definite requirements, the Committee of Council adopted a method of regulating the staffing of Elementary Schools which, with modifications, has been followed ever since. In the Code for 1882 appeared for the first time a scale of staff values stating the number of scholars in average attendance for which a teacher of each grade would be allowed to count. During the forty years which have elapsed since that date this scale has undergone various modifications, the chief of which are set out in tabular form below. Only modifications which actually became effective as regulations are included, and the table provides another measure of such progress as has been made within the period.

SCALE OF STAFF VALUES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 1882–1922.[1]

Grade of Teacher.	*Average Attendance.*						
	1882.	*1890.*[2]		*1897.*	*1909.*[2]		*1919 and 1922.*
Principal Certificated Teacher	60	60	40	50	35	35	35
Other Certificated Teachers	80	70	40	60	60	40	60
Assistant Teachers (not Certificated)	60	50	30	45	35	30	35
Additional Woman Teacher	40	30	20	30	20	20	20
Pupil Teacher[3]	40	30	20	30	—	—	—
Candidate Pupil Teacher	20	20	10	20	—	—	—
Student Teacher	—	—	—	—	20[4]	20	20

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1909–10, Pt. I, Introduction, pp. 2–30; *Elementary Education, Provisional Code*, 1919 and 1922.

[2] Column 2 gives a special scale for small schools. That for 1890 continued in force until 1909. In the 1919 and 1922 Codes no separate scale appears.

[3] Pupil Teachers ceased to be recognized on the staff of a school from 31 July 1909; they may, however, for the present, be included.

[4] In the Code for 1907 Student Teachers were counted as equivalent to forty-five children in average attendance.

Various supplementary regulations as to the staffing of schools were introduced from time to time, but we need only call attention to those of special significance. For example, in 1890 an attempt was made to give the untrained Certificated Teacher a lower staff value than the trained, but this regulation was never complied with and was dropped in 1897. Similarly the intention was expressed in 1906 of requiring a certain proportion of Trained Certificated Teachers on the staffs of all Public Elementary Schools, but no further steps were taken to carry it into effect. Again, in 1894 the principle was introduced for the first time of limiting the size of classes. At first the regulations laid down that the numbers on the register in a given class should not exceed 15 per cent. of the figure in the scale of staff values for the teacher ; but in the following year the number in average attendance was substituted for the number on the register and the effect of the regulation destroyed. In 1909 the number on the register of any class was restricted to sixty, and in the same year was introduced a regulation requiring that there should be one Certificated Teacher for every eighty scholars in average attendance, a number reduced in 1914 to seventy. But the most important change of all was made in 1903 when the Board remedied a great defect in previous Codes by ruling that non-compliance with their staffing requirements rendered the Education Authority liable to forfeit the whole of the grant. Previously only a proportion was forfeited, the amount being determined by the extent of the delinquency. Moreover, the regulations now stated that the staffing of a school would not be judged solely by the scale, but regard would be had to the adequacy and sufficiency of the staff from every point of view—the arrangement of premises, the organization of the school, the nature of the curriculum, and the qualifications of the teachers for the work they were supposed to undertake. Add to all these the restriction of the employment of Supplementary Teachers to small schools and rural areas, and we have a fairly complete idea of the way in which the second of the two factors influencing demand has operated.

The standards of staffing thus set up by the Central Authority have remained constant since 1909, so that, even making allowance for the intervention of four years of war, we may

reasonably expect to find that they have, approximately at least, been attained. The number of Certificated Teachers should be one to every seventy scholars in average attendance; the number on the register of any class should not exceed sixty; and the employment of Supplementary Teachers should be confined to small schools and rural areas. To what we have said as to the continued employment of Supplementary Teachers it is unnecessary to add. When we turn to the table on p. 266 we see that in the aggregate at least the first requirement is already complied with. The number of scholars in many classes, however, continues to exceed the limits prescribed. Thus for the year ending 31 March 1920[1] there were

39,039 classes containing 40–49 pupils in average attendance;
31,204 ,, ,, 50–59 ,, ,, ,,
6,970 ,, ,, 60 or more ,, ,, ,,

and when we remember that the average attendance even in a very good year represents only from 88 to 90 per cent. of the number on the roll, we can understand that the Board's standard is still far from being attained.

So far we have contented ourselves with stating the facts without comment, but this must not be taken to imply that the standards of staffing laid down by the Central Authority have at any time been regarded as satisfactory. Indeed, throughout most of the period which we have been so rapidly reviewing, their standard has been a minimum standard exceeded by the more progressive Authorities and at times regarded as a hindrance to educational progress rather than a help. Thus it was the strong criticism of the Cross Commission in 1888 which brought about the first improvement in the original scale of staff values;[2] the larger Education Authorities like London had, prior to the war, long ceased to appoint unqualified teachers, and a number of progressive County Education Authorities, prior to the present movement in favour of economy, adopted a staffing policy greatly in advance of the requirements of the Board of Education. It must always be remembered, too, that tables which apply to the whole country tend to obscure the wide differences which

[1] Answer in House of Commons, *Hansard*, 24 February 1922.
[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1909–10, pp. 4–5.

exist between areas, and to make the position seem better than it really is. In such a matter, for example, as the ratio of Certificated Teachers to scholars, the mere addition of numbers makes the better staffing in one area compensate for the lower standard in another. Moreover, under the latest device adopted for reducing expenditure on staffing even this standard has virtually been abandoned. When the majority of children in a class are under six years of age neither the children nor the teacher need be taken into account in determining the adequacy or otherwise of the staff of a school.[1] Again, the limit of 60 on the roll has long been admitted to be excessive, and the London Education Committee as far back as 1912 adopted a building programme with a view to classes of not more than 40 on the roll in Senior Departments, and not more than 48 in Infants' Schools.[2] Finally, it will be sufficient to call attention to the fact that only 46 per cent. of the adult teachers employed in Elementary Schools in 1919–20 were both trained and certificated[3] to show that there is in the matter of professional training ample room for improvement.

The problem of the supply of teachers for Secondary Schools is smaller, though not for that reason any the less important. The demand for teachers has been influenced by the factors which we saw operating in the case of Elementary Schools—the expansion of the school system, the funds available to the school authorities, and the standards of staffing set up by the Central Authority. An increase in the number of schools has necessarily involved an increase also in the total number of teachers employed; the improved financial position of grant-earning schools has facilitated the employment of better qualified teachers, while the limitation of the size of classes by the Board of Education has resulted in a further addition to their numbers. No attempt has been made by the Board to regulate the numbers of children per teacher in such detail as has been the case in Elementary Schools; but a general regulation in force since 1906 limits the size of classes to 30 scholars in average attendance, with a

[1] *Elementary Schools: Provisional Code*, 1922, Art. 12 (*d*).

[2] London County Council: Scheme under the Education Act, 1918 (July 1920), p. 11.

[3] See Appendix C, p. 446, for statistics.

maximum in special cases of 35.[1] Owing to the exceptional demand for secondary education which has arisen within the past few years, coupled with the difficulty of providing sufficient accommodation, the size of classes has in many cases exceeded these figures. Thus, for example, on 1 October 1921 there were in grant-earning Secondary Schools in England 3,133 classes in 760 schools with an average attendance exceeding 30, 98 of which had an average attendance of more than 35.[2] Both as to the numbers and qualifications of the teachers, however, the position in grant-earning Secondary Schools compares favourably with that in Elementary Schools : the leeway to be made up is not so great, and the demand for additional teachers will depend mainly upon the extent to which facilities for secondary education are developed in the future.

Turning from the factors influencing demand to the extent of the supply required to meet the demand, we find ourselves faced at once with the aspect of the problem which has received most attention in recent years—the securing of an adequate number of entrants to the profession. All estimates of the numbers required are based upon data put forward by the Board of Education from time to time. For them the basis of calculation is the number of posts available in the area of each Local Education Authority for Certificated and Uncertificated Teachers. In a Circular to Local Education Authorities issued in 1915[3] the percentage of new admissions required annually to replace wastage was estimated at 6 per cent. of the available posts. This figure did not make any allowance for growth in school population or improvement in staffing, nor did it include any provision for making good existing staff deficiencies.

From what we have just said as to the differences in the standards of staffing prevailing in different areas and the number of large classes still to be found, it will be evident that such a basis of calculation cannot be entirely satisfactory. Adopting it for the moment, the number of entrants required would be 6 per cent. of 150,000, the latter being the number of posts for Certificated and Uncertificated Teachers existing in 1915—that

[1] *B. of E. Regulations for Secondary Schools*, 1921, Section 13.
[2] *B. of E. Report*, 1921–2, p. 30.
[3] *Circ. 908*, 18 June 1915.

is 9,000, by the Board's own confession a subsistence allowance rather than the number required for an efficient working of the schools. If we provide for the normal growth in school population, and a steady improvement in school staffing sufficient merely to level all schools up to the present low standard, this figure would have to be increased by at least another 1,000, and the adoption by Local Education Authorities generally of anything like a progressive staffing policy would involve a still further addition.

The problem of supply, therefore, so far as it concerns the Elementary School, may be regarded as having been under- rather than over-stated. For Secondary Schools no such estimate has been attempted; and as there are many schools for which no statistics are available, any estimate must be confined to grant-earning schools. In the 1,285 schools in England and Wales for which details appear in the Board of Education Report for 1921–2 there were 18,728 teachers of both sexes (graduate and non-graduate).[1] Owing to the fact that many of these teachers do not pass through a long preliminary preparation for their work, but enter the schools direct from Universities, we may regard the wastage as rather less than was allowed for Elementary Teachers, perhaps approximately between 4 and 5 per cent. Taking the latter figure, these schools will require an annual recruitment of approximately 900 teachers, a number which would rapidly increase were the much-needed development in secondary education rendered possible. Finally, a moderate estimate has placed the number of teachers required to bring into operation the system of continued education contemplated by the Act of 1918 as upwards of 30,000.[2]

Some idea as to how far the requisite supply is forthcoming for Elementary Schools is obtainable from the table given on page 264. From this it may be seen that the year 1920–1 was the first for many years in which the number of entrants to the profession has been sufficient to make good normal wastage; and when we remember that in every year some of those who complete their training take up service in other than Elementary Schools, the inadequacy of the supply becomes even more

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1921–2, pp. 30 and 37.
[2] *Circ. 1115*, 2 June 1919.

apparent. Figures are not available for Secondary Schools alone ; but information obtained from the leading Appointment Agencies indicate that, as might be expected, from 1914 to 1920 there were not sufficient qualified teachers to fill the available posts. During 1921, however, the position gradually changed, and now, with the largely increased output of men and women from the Universities, the supply of teachers with reasonably good academic qualifications may fairly be said to be adequate for present needs, though not sufficient to allow for any expansion. The demand for Secondary Teachers who have passed through a course of professional training increases but slowly, and probably the supply now available may be sufficient to meet the demand, particularly as in their case the prejudice against professional training is reinforced by considerations of economy. Under the Burnham scale a period of post-graduate training entitles the teacher to an addition to the scale salary, with the result that training, like experience, is at present a disadvantage for those seeking appointments.

There is one aspect of the problem to which we must refer before we pass on to consider the explanations which have been offered for the deficiency and the remedies suggested at different times, an aspect which emphasizes particularly the significance of the standards of staffing adopted by the Central and Local Authorities at any given time. During the next few months, possibly years, we may see numbers of fully qualified (trained and certificated) teachers unemployed, on most of whom public funds have been expended over a long period of years on the scale already described. The explanation which suggests itself to those who are unfamiliar with the facts is that the number of teachers produced is in excess of the demand, is more, that is, than can be absorbed by the schools ; whereas it will be evident to those who have followed us thus far that the real explanation is to be found in the lowering of standards of staffing in our schools, standards which at the best have been but minima. The years 1908 to 1910 saw a similar crisis. Improvements in staffing facilitated by the Act of 1902, particularly in Voluntary Schools, revealed a dearth of qualified teachers, and Local Education Authorities were encouraged to devise various schemes for increasing the supply. Scholarships for intending teachers

were introduced, new Training Colleges were established so that the supply of trained teachers might be increased, with the result that, when rising rates caused anxiety, qualified teachers found themselves set aside for a cheaper article. Ex-Pupil Teachers, of whom there was now a plentiful supply, and Supplementary Teachers, were preferred to Certificated Teachers, and where Certificated Teachers had to be employed the untrained were preferred to the trained, with the result that numbers of fully qualified teachers were unable to obtain employment. The estimates given as to the extent of this unemployment vary considerably; but information collected from Training Colleges in the autumn of 1908 showed that approximately one-fourth of the students coming out of the Training Colleges in July of that year had not secured employment,[1] while a similar inquiry made in the autumn of 1910 showed that almost one-third of the students from thirty Colleges were still without permanent posts.[2] The remedy then suggested was the obvious one, that the Board of Education should not merely adopt a clearly defined and enlightened policy as to staffing; but, having done so, should adhere to it. Then, as now, the size of classes, the employment of Supplementary Teachers, the insufficient number of trained teachers in the schools, were all indicated as defects calling for removal by making use of the better supply of teachers available. Staffs were gradually improved after an interval, so that the increased annual output of trained teachers was absorbed; but the number of entrants had by this time again fallen and continued at a low figure until 1920. Exactly the same position has arisen again on account of reductions of staff in the name of economy, and there is every prospect that the same difficulties will recur within the next decade. It takes on an average four years to make a teacher under our present system, and the full result of the post-war influx is only just being felt. The reaction has yet to come, and, unless the present movement for the reduction of school staffs speedily comes to an end, we shall find ourselves in a few years' time again lamenting the insufficient number of recruits coming

[1] Gray, 'The Supply of Teachers.' Paper read at the North of England Education Conference, January 1909.

[2] *The Times Educational Supplement*, 4 October 1910.

forward. All of which considerations point to the necessity for some more considered attempt to regulate demand and supply than has as yet been made. To this we shall presently recur.

Reasons for the shortage of intending teachers for Elementary Schools have been so frequently suggested, both in official reports and at divers meetings and conferences of educational organizations in recent years, that the educational expert will by this time be thoroughly familiar with them. The general reader, however, may welcome a brief enumeration of the most important. First and foremost it has been pointed out that the teaching profession is no exception to the general rule, and that now, as in the time of Kay-Shuttleworth, the problem is largely an economic one; or, to quote the words of the Board of Education, 'the number of young persons adopting the profession of a teacher will ultimately be determined by its attractiveness in respect of emoluments, immediate and prospective, status and security'.[1] We may add relative attractiveness; for much depends on the number and nature of openings available in other walks of life to boys and girls who otherwise might have entered the profession, but who by the extension of the facilities for obtaining a secondary education are now able to avail themselves of other opportunities. Again, the smaller number coming forward under the Bursar system as compared with the earlier forms of the Pupil Teacher system has led to other explanations being offered. The postponement of wage-earning which the former involves, the absence of any motive on the part of the Elementary Teacher to look out for suitable candidates for the profession, and the indifference of Secondary Teachers to all problems affecting the Elementary School have all been suggested as causes of the decline.

Each of these explanations, doubtless, contains an element of truth, and it is on these lines that remedies have been suggested and adopted. The recent revision of salaries which has resulted from the labours of the Joint Committee,[2] and the introduction by the Teachers' Superannuation Act of 1918 of an improved pension scheme for teachers in grant-earning schools, have partially removed the cause which has been most potent in deterring entrants to the profession. This improvement in

[1] *Report*, 1912–13, p. 149.

[2] Appendix C, pp. 438–40.

prospects, coupled with the absence of other equally attractive openings, is more than sufficient to account for the influx of the past few years, an influx which, owing to the check now being administered, has probably attained its maximum for the time being. New avenues of promotion, on the other hand, have yet to be created; and as there is need for a certain amount of consolidation of small schools this can best be done for the Elementary Teacher, and indeed for the Secondary Teacher also, by creating posts of special responsibility in larger schools, and by opening more of the higher posts in the educational service, in practice as well as in theory, to teachers of proved ability and experience who possess adequate qualifications for the work.

To remedy the postponement of wage-earning which occurs under the Bursar and Student Teacher system the Board of Education encourage the granting of maintenance allowances, and the revival of the Pupil Teacher system represents not merely a return to the earlier policy in this respect, but is also a renewed attempt to enlist once again the interest of Head Teachers of Elementary Schools in bringing forward recruits for the profession. The character of the training given in training institutions is sometimes suggested as an additional reason for the smaller number of entrants, but of this we have spoken at sufficient length, and as for the conditions in Elementary Schools, it should by now be evident that, in many respects, they leave much to be desired.

For the Secondary Teacher the question of tenure still awaits a satisfactory solution; in this respect his colleague in the Elementary School is more fortunate, being safeguarded against arbitrary dismissal by legally binding agreements.

Under the system of recruiting candidates which has developed in this country the responsibility for securing entrants to the profession has always devolved upon the authorities responsible for staffing the schools. Formerly these were the Managers of Voluntary Schools and School Boards, but are now, for the majority of grant-earning schools, the Local Education Authorities set up in 1902. From 1915 onwards the Board of Education has steadily pursued a policy of stimulating Authorities to fulfil their duty in this respect by bringing forward annually a number of recruits sufficient at least to replace the wastage in their own areas. In a circular of that year, which

is often quoted, as well as in others of more recent date,[1] statistics are given to show that few Education Authorities were at the time producing the required quota, that is 6 per cent. of the available posts for Certificated and Uncertificated Teachers, and that certain areas were very evidently relying on obtaining adult teachers who had been educated and trained at the cost of other Authorities. The Board urged these, and indeed all Local Authorities, to provide more and better scholarships and maintenance allowances to intending teachers, and also encouraged alternative schemes for increasing the supply of candidates. Finally, by Section 2 c (ii) of the Education Act, 1918, Local Authorities were made definitely responsible for the maintenance of an adequate supply of teachers for the schools in their areas.

Our previous examination of the general character of the preliminary education of intending teachers led us to the conclusion that anything less than a full-time and completed secondary education could not be regarded as satisfactory, and that special financial inducements to young people conditional upon an undertaking to teach were undesirable. These conclusions have their bearing on the question we are now discussing, and bring us at once to one of the fundamental causes of the inadequacy of the supply of intending teachers. From 1870 onwards the problem of staffing the schools which were rapidly increasing in number was simply one of creating a supply of persons sufficiently educated (according to the standards of the time) for the work of teaching. It was solved by supplying selected pupils from the Elementary Schools with a little more instruction in the subjects of the Elementary School curriculum, and adding some training in method. The general standard of education required of the intending teacher has risen with the general level of education of the community, but the problem and the solution adopted are essentially the same. The number and variety of openings for men and particularly for women with a secondary education have increased, and there are in normal times insufficient of them to go round. The solution so far adopted has been to increase the number by putting young people who have promised to become teachers through a Secondary School course, or the nearest equivalent to it; but even when this is done, the source

[1] *Circulars 908* (1915), *1124* (1919), *1160* (1920).

of supply is much less than in the days when the intending teacher was taken direct from the Elementary School. The solution yet to be adopted is to increase the number of those to whom facilities for secondary education are available, irrespective of whether they propose to become teachers or not. It is felt by some educational administrators that it would be a great gain if all the money now expended on the preliminary education of teachers as such were expended on providing increased facilities for secondary education available without this limitation. At present the tendency is for the profession to be recruited only from a comparatively small group; whereas by the general adoption of a policy of this kind, recruiting would take place at a later stage and would make a wider appeal. The responsibility of a Local Education Authority for the entrance of candidates into the profession would not be removed, but would be postponed. Their first approach to the problem would be towards the close of the Secondary School period: upon them would fall the responsibility of arranging for the ways and means of entering the profession to be made known to the older pupils in those schools, for any preliminary testing which might be deemed necessary, and for the professional training of those who, after such a test, were thought suitable for the work of teaching. Such an arrangement would have an additional advantage over the present system. Owing to the large and continuous expenditure of local funds upon the teacher's earlier education, he is often under an obligation to return to the area from which he originally came; whereas then, since the later and more specifically professional training is even now and must become increasingly a national rather than a local charge, one motive at least for such return would be weakened, and he would feel freer to take up service in whatever part of the country he pleased.

The weak point in our system, or lack of system, for providing teachers has hitherto been this matter of responsibility. It is sometimes suggested that the Board of Education might itself undertake the task of finding teachers, acting for this purpose through their inspectors; but this they could hardly do so effectively as the Local Authority acting through the teachers in the schools. Nevertheless there is need for a much more definite acceptance of responsibility by the Board, not merely for improved salaries and pensions, but for a more continuous and

systematic handling of this problem of supply. They alone are in a position to estimate the needs of our educational system in advance; this should be more systematically attempted and for a longer period than ever before, and Local Education Authorities should not merely know the extent of their responsibility, but be assured that for every prospective teacher there will be a vacancy in some training institution, and, after training, reasonable prospect of his employment in the schools. In a task of this kind the assistance of some kind of National Committee for Teacher Training would be invaluable.[1]

We have devoted considerable space to the question of numbers, but the problem of the supply of teachers has another aspect which we must not overlook—that of quality. There is no need to dwell further upon the need for the general raising of the standard of certification which prevails; what we wish to emphasize here is that to raise emoluments and improve conditions of service, as well as to offer all sorts of inducements to young people to enter the profession can have but one result, unless at the same time the standard is raised. Experience during the past ten years has led many teachers to conclude (to quote the words of one of them) 'that young people are attracted to take up teaching who are ill fitted to play either the part of students or that of practical teachers . . . and who would be far better advised to embark on some other vocation'.

It may be suggested that to raise the standard will diminish the supply of teachers, and until the source of supply is widened this may be so, though probably to a less extent than is generally supposed—for the attractiveness of a profession is not necessarily diminished by making entrance to it less easy. There has of late years been a tendency to devote attention too exclusively to numbers, and admittedly difficulties of organization caused by understaffing are great. Nevertheless a mere addition to the number of teachers employed does not meet the case. The two things must go together—numbers must be increased, but incompetent teachers must not be multiplied: only in this way can there be any real advance.

A few general questions remain. It is not unusual to hear

[1] The Central Executive Committee of the Scottish National Committee has already devoted some attention to the question of supply. See *Second Annual Report* (1921–2), pp. 6 and 7.

that what the Elementary Schools need most is for men and women from the Universities to enter them as teachers. How far this is likely to come about under present conditions is made clear by a recent inquiry. In the early months of 1919, when it appeared as though the main task of Local Education Authorities was to prepare for a forward movement, an attempt was made to ascertain what sources of supply were available for the additional teachers who would be needed. Probably the most systematic attempt of the kind was an inquiry made as to the number of University women likely to enter the teaching profession in the new future. The results were interesting. Out of rather more than 1,000 students who sent in replies to a questionnaire, approximately 60 per cent. signified their intention of taking up some form of teaching ; but only eleven of the whole number definitely stated that they contemplated teaching in Elementary Schools : the remainder wished to enter Secondary or Continuation Schools, principally the former. Many of them gave reasons for their decision, and an analysis of these brings out clearly the main factors which influenced them in their choice. To one of these we have already referred above, namely the conditions of work in Elementary Schools ; another drawback mentioned was the inferior status of Elementary Teachers and their isolation in the community ; a third supplies a partial answer to those who lament the absence of the University graduate from the Elementary School. The students considered that they would have insufficient scope, and little opportunity for teaching the special subjects to which they had devoted several years of study. They seemed to fear that a University training would be wasted in an Elementary School.[1] No such evidence is available for men, so far as we are aware ; but experience goes to prove that the majority of students who follow a Four-Year Course in a University Training Department look forward to taking up service in Secondary Schools, while it is a commonplace that of those Elementary Teachers who come up to a University later in life few willingly return to teach in the Elementary School.

These considerations suggest the necessity for reconsidering

[1] The above details have been kindly supplied by the Secretary to the Committee which made the inquiry.

the problem of the supply of teachers in connexion with the much larger question of the organization of our educational system. Recent events have revealed a divergence of opinion as to the nature of future developments. On the one hand we have schemes which provide for an extension of the Elementary School system by means of Central Schools and Classes, followed by part-time education in Day Continuation Schools. On the other hand we have the suggestion that what is needed is a redrawing of the lines of demarcation between the Elementary and Secondary School systems in such a way that all education before the age of eleven becomes primary and all education above that age is regarded as secondary. Thus it would be for the Primary School to provide the child with that early training in the use of the tools of knowledge without which later progress is impossible; while Secondary Schools of various types would provide for a gradually increasing specialization in one or more of several groups of subjects. The former would be staffed mainly by women, for whom a University course of the existing type would not necessarily be the only or the best kind of preparation; the latter by both men and women who would be specialists in subjects, the study of which they had carried to degree standard. From the point of view of the supply of teachers the second line of development would have many advantages. Intending teachers, particularly men, who were more attracted by opportunities for specializing in their favourite subjects with older children would pass naturally into the secondary system; while those women to whom work with the younger children made a special appeal would prepare definitely for it. The task of training institutions could be made much simpler because more specialized; and the over-production of specialist teachers for whom no place can be found in the existing school system would become an anomaly of the past.

Underlying the suggestion that University men and women are needed in Elementary Schools lies the implication that the teachers of these schools should be drawn from a wider range of classes. It is therefore of interest to inquire how far there has been any change in this respect. The earliest details obtainable go back only to 1904–5; and when these are compared with details for later years collected from various sources, there

appears to have been little change. This is also the opinion of Training College Principals and lecturers of long experience, and we may therefore infer that the main effect of the Bursar system has been to pass through the Secondary School young people who, under the Pupil Teacher system, would have prepared for their career in the Elementary School, a result almost inevitably following from the policy of early selection and of subsidy which has been adopted. Among the steadily increasing number of Student Teachers who have not been Bursars, and the larger numbers entering the profession without passing through any of the preliminary stages, there will probably be rather more variety, though particulars obtained from Training Colleges are not sufficient to indicate the extent of such variation. Similarly it is sometimes claimed that Rural Pupil Teacher schemes have succeeded in tapping other sources of supply and bringing into the profession children from other classes in the community. In Warwickshire, for example, there have been brought into the profession through this channel children of farmers on the one hand and children of labourers on the other; but details from other areas do not indicate that new sources of supply have been tapped to any considerable extent, but rather that earlier sources have been reopened.[1]

The supply of teachers for Private Schools has been considerably affected by the improved conditions as to salary and pensions now prevailing in state-aided Secondary Schools, and, although no figures can be given, there is a general consensus of opinion among those who are in a position to know that, if the secondary system should continue to expand, the staffing of these schools would become rather more difficult and the quality of the candidates available considerably lower. The freer conditions prevailing in the better of these schools will always, however, attract a certain number of adventurous spirits, so that the contribution which the Private School can make to educational progress is not likely to disappear.

Facilities for Professional Training. The position as to the supply of facilities for the professional training of Elementary

[1] Details have been kindly supplied by the Principals of typical Training Colleges and by several Directors of Education, but they are not sufficiently complete to set out in tabular form.

Teachers may be gathered from the following table[1] and from the details to be found in the Appendix.[2]

Year.	*Number of Training Institutions.*	*Number of Students.*	*Number completing course.*
1913–14	87	11,787	5,570
1914–15	89	10,948	4,821
1915–16	78	10,150	4,215
1916–17	72	9,033	4,196
1917–18	74	9,117	4,183
1918–19	78	10,077	4,474
1919–20	88	13,536	5,264
1920–1	92	15,451	6,660

Of the ninety-two institutions to which the 1920–1 details refer, two, the Colleges for ex-Service students at Lancaster and Sarisbury Court, may be regarded as temporary. Practically all the remaining Colleges for both men and women were full, some of them being allowed to take more than the normal number of students. We may therefore regard the probable output as approximately 6,000, or two-thirds of the 9,000 recruits considered to be necessary for maintaining the present rather unsatisfactory standard of staffing, and little more than half the number that would be needed to ensure an efficient working of the schools. Thus, without making any allowance for the provision of additional educational facilities of any kind, the output of the existing training institutions may be regarded as insufficient, and in 1919 various schemes were put forward for increasing it. One or two Training Colleges provided by voluntary bodies came into existence to provide courses of training for teachers in Nursery and Continuation Schools and were recognized by the Board of Education. University Training Departments expanded, and temporary Training Colleges for ex-Service students were also established, but the development which seemed likely to prove most extensive was the provision of additional Colleges by Local Education Authorities in order to enable them to fulfil their obligations under the 1918 Act. Thus, to mention only a few instances of contemplated or suggested provision of this kind, the Director of Education for Manchester, in a review of the City's Educational Problem, suggests that it may be necessary to consider seriously the

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1920–1, p. 51. [2] Appendix B, pp. 399–402.

provision of further training facilities for all types of teachers, with residential accommodation in certain cases.[1] Kent Education Committee, in its Scheme, looked forward to the time when the number of teachers needed in the County would be sufficient to justify the establishment of a Residential County Training College,[2] while the Education Committee for the County Borough of Stoke-on-Trent contemplated co-operation with other Authorities for the provision of a College for the training of men and women teachers.[3]

Administratively Council Colleges may have advantages, but there are other matters to be considered before deciding that a development of this kind would be in the best interests of the educational system as a whole. To most of them we have already made some reference. Such a development, for example, presupposes the continuance of the Two-Year Training College combining academic instruction with professional training, localizes still more the supply of teachers, leaves in the background the relation of Training Colleges to Universities, and assumes a continuance of the present classification of schools. So far as can be foreseen, the effect would be to establish even more firmly the existing system with many of its attendant defects. There is, therefore, all the more need for an examination of the kind we have been making, for it is important to determine how far the principles underlying arrangements to-day are likely to prove a suitable guide for the developments of to-morrow. That a modification of present arrangements would not be without effect upon the supply of facilities for professional training will be at once apparent when we point out that the introduction of a Four-Year Course for all teachers in place of the present combined Two-Year Course would almost halve the output of Training Institutions. Whether so radical a change is desirable or possible we must discuss when we consider the various alternatives which have been suggested for future development.

[1] Spurley Hey, *Manchester's Educational Problem.*

[2] Kent Education Committee, Draft Scheme under the Education Act, 1918, pp. 143–4. But see note on p. 201.

[3] Stoke-on-Trent, Draft Scheme under the Education Act, 1918, p. 60.

XII

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES

The comparative study of educational systems received its first impetus in England in the years when institutions for the training of teachers were in their infancy. Kay-Shuttleworth and Matthew Arnold were among the first to realize its value, and on the whole the example of other countries had more influence on our teacher-training system at that time than at any later period. Valuable studies of foreign educational systems have been prepared from time to time under the direction of the Board of Education's Office of Special Inquiries and Reports, but subsequent developments in this part of the field have been but little influenced, and have taken place in comparative isolation. It will therefore be instructive to turn aside for a moment to examine the arrangements which prevail for the training of teachers in two typical democratic communities, the United States and France. This examination will be all the more opportune now that we have arrived at the stage when the inadequacy of existing arrangements in our own country is rapidly becoming obvious, and when all the available light which can be shed upon our problems should be welcomed.

Education in the United States divides itself into four stages—elementary, high school, college, and university—and though the institutions which make provision for the different stages originated separately and with no connected purpose, they now form a continuous and complete scheme. Within this general scheme there are of course many variations, and in each part of the field both public and private institutions are to be found. Thus, for example, there are at least some five or six types of High School with specialized curricula,[1] while of the better-

[1] E. P. Cubberley, in *Public Education in the United States*, ch. xiii, groups the High Schools of to-day as Agricultural, Manual Training, Cosmopolitan, Liberal-Culture, Commercial, Vocational.

known Universities, Harvard, Yale, and Princeton are privately endowed institutions, and Cornell and Cincinnati Universities have been established and maintained out of State or city funds.[1] Into variations of this kind we need not trouble to enter.

There are, however, one or two general characteristics and tendencies of American education which it is necessary to grasp before we can understand the more specific arrangements for teacher training. First of these is the division of each stage of education into grades, each with its own special curriculum. The grades usually found in the various types of institutions are shown diagrammatically on p. 455, as is also the general scheme of which each forms a part. It should be noted, however, that in recent years the wisdom of continuing the existing lines of demarcation, particularly at the eighth grade, has been called into question, and an increasing number of the more advanced communities, especially cities, are breaking away from the older system and introducing a plan whereby the Elementary School consists only of six grades. To provide for the transition from the Elementary to the High School there is growing up another type of institution known as the Junior High School, which by an increasing differentiation of curriculum prepares the way for the High School proper. These are modifications which remind us at once of suggestions which have been advanced for the reform of our own educational system by a re-drawing of the lines of demarcation between elementary and secondary education at or about the age of eleven.

The completion of the curriculum provided in the grades of any of these institutions is known as graduation: thus an Elementary School graduate has completed the six or eight grades of the Elementary School, the High School graduate the two, three, or four years curriculum of the High School, whichever may be provided. In institutions of collegiate rank graduation becomes the completion of the courses comprised in a grade, rather than residence or attendance for a specified number of years, and as evidence of the successful completion of these it is

[1] Some State Universities have received handsome gifts from private sources. In 1915–16, out of 574 Universities, Colleges, and Technical Schools, 97 were public and 477 private institutions. In the same year, out of 14,121 High Schools, 12,003 were public and 2,118 private schools. (*Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1917, vol. ii, pp. 292–3 and 510.)

necessary to produce a certificate from an accredited authority. Examinations play a smaller part in the American system than in our own. The successful completion of a course depends rather on the attendances made and the work done, an arrangement which renders possible intermittent attendance at places of higher education, and the gradual building up of complete qualifications for a particular purpose.

The second characteristic which should be noted is the absence of centralized control in the English sense, control, that is, by the Federal Government, and the relatively greater importance of the locality in educational administration. The unit for public school administration varies greatly—in one State [1] it may be a school district, in another a township, in others a larger area such as a county. For certain purposes the unit may be the State. Of the various school systems that in which the County is the unit approximates most nearly to the English arrangements for educational administration, and is found to be the most satisfactory. Urban Districts within the County may or may not be under the supervision of the County Board of Education, but even where they are not, as is more usually the case, there is co-operation between them.

Though a Central Authority of the kind familiar to us in this country does not exist, there are signs that changes in this direction are not likely to be long delayed. From the date of the establishment of the Federal Constitution education has remained one of the functions reserved to the States. The Federal Department of Education established in 1867 was reduced in 1869 to the status of a Bureau of Information under the Department of the Interior,[2] but in spite of this, the excellent work which it has accomplished along these lines is gradually extending its influence throughout the country. Moreover, successive grants of surplus revenue and land from time to time to the States have tended to increase the control of the Federal Government, and direct appropriations of money in aid of education have been made from national funds to an increasing extent in recent years. Beginning in 1887 with grants for the founding of agricultural

[1] Throughout the chapter the word State is always used in this sense and does not refer to the Federal Government of the whole country.

[2] P. Sandiford, *Comparative Education*, p. 20.

experiment stations in each State,[1] the principle of Federal aid received a new application when in 1914 (by the Smith-Lever Act) grants for the extension of teaching in agriculture and home economics had to be duplicated from State funds.[2] A still more important law, known as the Smith-Hughes Vocational Educational Bill, was approved by Congress in 1917, and provided for grants from the National Treasury to the States in proportion to their rural population for the stimulation of instruction in Agriculture in Secondary Schools, and in proportion to their total population for the training of teachers in these subjects.[3] Finally there is at the present time before Congress the Sterling-Towner Bill, which seeks legislation for the creation of a Federal Department of Education, and contemplates Federal aid to the States for educational purposes, including among other things the provision of grants in aid of maintenance allowances to teachers in training.[4]

The varied character of administrative arrangements in the United States and the absence of any great degree of central control combine to impart to American education the most striking of its characteristics—namely its diversity. In all that we have to say it should be borne in mind that conditions differ widely from State to State and even from community to community, and that illustrations drawn from particular States or communities represent a few typical variations, rather than a picture in miniature of conditions in the country as a whole.

Qualifications of Teachers. Arrangements for the certification of teachers in the United States are even more various than those for educational administration in general. While it is true that no one may teach in a public school without a licence from some authority, that authority may vary from a whole State whose superintendent holds examinations for the purpose, and throughout which the qualifications thus gained hold good, to a comparatively small local committee. There is no such qualification as the English Board of Education Certificate valid throughout the country, and with so many authorities it is easy to understand that the qualifications on which certificates are issued may differ

[1] P. Sandiford, *Comparative Education*, p. 22.
[2] E. P. Cubberley, op. cit., p. 430. [3] Ibid., pp. 417–19.
[4] W. S. Hertzog, *State Maintenance for Teachers in Training*, p. 57.

widely. On the whole the system most in favour is one by which the County Board of Education or Superintendent of Schools examines 'beginners' and issues the lower grade certificates, while the granting of the higher grade certificates is in the hands of a Central Board acting for the whole State. When the State system is adopted in its entirety no local authority may employ a teacher not possessing a licence from the Central Board.

The general conditions as to standards of staffing in public schools [1] are due to some extent to the fact that the United States is a comparatively young and rapidly developing country. Facilities for the special training of teachers have not kept pace with the increase in school population, with the result that unqualified teachers have been employed in large numbers, and an attempt has been made to provide facilities for them to improve their qualifications. This the existence of a number of certificates of various grades enables them to do, for while those of the lowest grade may be obtained with little or no training or experience, and have but a very limited duration, the higher grades demand higher academic qualifications, professional training, and longer experience, the attainment of any or all of which can be made a gradual process. The higher grade certificates are valid for a longer period, those of the highest grades for life. So great a diversity in the requirements for certificates, and the general unwillingness of States (and even of Counties within the same State) to accept certificates other than their own, have for some time hampered educational progress by reducing the mobility of the teaching profession, and the problem of finding some means of introducing more uniform standards is one to which a number of American educationists have devoted considerable attention.

The most recent certificate regulations for the State of Pennsylvania will give some idea of the detailed character of the arrangements in a particular State, and will show how it is possible for a teacher to raise the grade of certificate which he holds. From these it will be noticed that on certain conditions temporary certificates are renewable once or twice as the case may be, and that even in the highest grades permanent certificates are only issued on the completion of a prescribed period of service.

[1] i. e. as distinct from private schools.

CERTIFICATION

Kind.	*Field.*	*Issuing Authority.*	*Term.*
I. Emergency	Elementary or Secondary	Local Superintendent	Not to exceed 3 months
II. Partial :			
1. Elementary (Professional Equivalent)	Elementary in county or district for which issued	State—at request of local superintendent	1 year
2. Secondary (Professional Equivalent)	Secondary in county or district for which issued	State—at request of local superintendent	1 year
III. Standard :			
1. Temporary	Elementary or Secondary	State	2 years
2. Permanent	Elementary or Secondary	State	Permanent
IV. Normal :			
1. Certificate	Elementary, Junior High, or High as specified	State	2 years
2. Diploma		State	Permanent
V. College :			
1. Provisional	Secondary (Elementary if student in school of education majored in elementary field)	State	3 years
2. Permanent		State	Permanent

NOTE. Endorsement certificates of corresponding grade will be issued upon the presentation of foreign certificates which are based upon requirements similar to those of Pennsylvania.

Commonwealth of Pennsylvania,
Department of Public Instruction,
Teacher Bureau,
Harrisburg.

REGULATIONS

Education.	*Qualifications. Professional Training.*	*Experience.*	*Renewal.*	*Grows into.*
	None	None	Extended for balance of current term on approval of State Superintendent	
4 years High School or equivalent (modified upon State authority)	8 S.H.[1]	None	Once on rating of low or better[2] plus 6 S.H. of additional approved training	III
4 years High School or equivalent plus 2 years College or additional experience or training in the certificate field	6 S.H.	None	and subsequently renewal on rating of middle or better plus 6 S.H. of additional approved training	III or V
4 years High School or equivalent	2 years 70 S.H. or equivalent	None	Once on rating of low and subsequently on rating of middle or better	III. 2 on rating of middle or better, 4 years successful teaching experience and such additional training as may be specified
4 years High School or equivalent	2 years 70 S.H. or equivalent	4 years		
4 years High School or equivalent	Normal School graduate	None	Once on rating of low	IV. 2 on rating of middle or better
4 years High School or equivalent	Normal School graduate	2 years		
College graduate	18 S.H.	None	Once on rating of low plus 6 S.H. graduate credit (half professional training)	V. 2 on rating of middle or better plus 6 S H. graduate credit, half of which should be professional training
College graduate	24 S.H.	3 or more years		

[1] S. H. is the abbreviation used here for semester hours. (A semester hour is not necessarily the same as a clock hour, and its value may vary from College to College.)

[2] This rating is done by the School Supervisors.

The qualifications of teachers in public schools in the United States cannot be shown so readily as in this country on account of their varying character. The standard most generally adopted as a minimum desirable for all teachers is a Two-Year Course in a Normal School (or, failing this, in a College, or in the College grades of a University), following four years in a High School. No exact figures are available for the country as a whole, but in most State surveys in recent years an attempt has been made to ascertain the position. Figures prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association show that there are wide variations between States. Thus of the teachers in California and Massachusetts 86 per cent. have graduated from a Normal School, as compared with 4 per cent. in Nebraska and Mississippi, and only 1 per cent. in Florida.[1]

There are great differences also between teachers in rural and urban areas. Thus the Alabama Survey (1919) shows that 63 per cent. of rural teachers have received no professional training whatever, 16 per cent. having entered the profession direct from the Elementary School, while in Missouri the proportion of rural teachers with less than the minimum preparation indicated above was 97 per cent.[2] Contrast with these statements the fact that in forty-seven large cities for which statistics were published in 1914, 91 per cent. of the teachers in Elementary Schools had received some preparation for their work beyond High School, and it is evident that the less qualified teachers preponderate in rural areas, and that only in the more populous centres have the majority of the teachers in Elementary Schools received any professional training.[3]

For the country as a whole it was estimated in 1913 that not more than one teacher in five had received professional training,[4] while more recently it has been affirmed that the

[1] *Journal of the National Education Association* (U.S.A.), January 1923, p. 23.

[2] Hertzog, op. cit., pp. 27, 31, 38–9 (quotes from State Surveys). Cf. H. W. Foght, *Efficiency and Preparation of Rural School Teachers* (Bulletin No. 49, 1914), p. 4, and *Journal of the N. E. A.* (U.S.A.), October 1922, p. 313. A recent survey of Rural Schools in New York State is summarized in the January 1923 number of the same Journal.

[3] F. A. Manny, *City Training Schools for Teachers* (Bulletin No. 47, 1914), Table 2, p. 151.

[4] A. C. Monahan and R. H. Wright, *Training Courses for Rural Teachers* (Bulletin No. 2, 1913), p. 8.

proportion of teachers with two years' professional training does not exceed 25 per cent.[1] As in England, teachers in High Schools are better qualified academically than those in Elementary Schools, but only a small proportion of them have undergone special preparation for their work.

Training Institutions. The majority of institutions for the training of teachers belong to one or other of two groups, being either State Normal Schools or City Training Schools. To-day there are in all 167 State Normal Schools with an enrolment of between seventy and eighty thousand students, and 67 Training Schools maintained by cities. In addition to these there were in 1915–16 forty-five private Normal Schools with an enrolment of almost seven thousand.[2]

A few institutions of University rank also make provision for training, and in some States teachers are prepared for rural schools in special training classes established in Counties or attached to High Schools.

Within these two main groups there are many variations. In the absence of a central authority exerting a standardizing and at times a stimulating influence, some of them have continued on the lines upon which they were originally founded, while others have developed at such rate and in such directions as may have been determined by the special circumstances of each particular case. Thus, for example, the Normal Schools of the Eastern States originated as Secondary Schools, often as part of the academies,[3] and to-day their courses, though definitely vocational, remain at the High School level. In the Middle West, on the other hand, State Universities were an early development,[4]

[1] *Journal of the N. E. A.* (U.S.A.), October 1922.

[2] The exact figures for 1915–16 were: Public Normal Schools, 234, with an enrolment of 104,714; Private Normal Schools, 45, with an enrolment of 6,958 (*Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1917, vol. ii, p. 445). These figures refer only to students in teacher-training classes.

[3] Academies were semi-private institutions designed to prepare boys and girls of the more prosperous classes for active participation in commercial and business life. Until the establishment of State High Schools they were the chief institutions for higher education in the country. A law of New York State in 1834 definitely assigned to them the task of preparing teachers for the common schools. The first State Normal School was opened at Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1839. Private Schools for the same purpose had been opened in 1823 (at Concord, Vermont) and 1827 (at Lancaster, Mass.).

[4] The first State University to be founded was Virginia, 1819. In most of

and it was not until they had failed in the task of teacher training that Normal Schools sprang up to any considerable extent. Some of them confined themselves to the task of training Elementary Teachers, others set themselves up as rivals to the Universities and have steadily aimed at offering courses of college standard, and obtaining the power to confer degrees. Between these two extremes may be found almost every conceivable modification.

The distribution of State Normal Schools throughout the various States of the Union follows no regular plan. Speaking generally, the number in a given State decreases as we go from East to West, and in the Eastern part of the country there are fewer schools in the Southern than in the Northern States. The number in a State may vary from one to thirteen (for the State of Pennsylvania). Massachusetts with ten schools has the largest number in proportion to population and area, while in the Southern States separate schools are usually to be found for white and coloured teachers.[1]

Like the State Normal Schools, most of the City Training Schools are also to be found in the Eastern States. Sixty-seven Schools are distributed among fifty-nine cities, seven of the larger cities having more than one. In ten or eleven large cities are State Normal Schools, which serve both city and State, and in one or two cases both a State Normal School and a City Training School are found in the same city.[2]

The State Normal School, as the name implies, is an institution maintained by a State, and having as one of its objects, often the sole object, the provision of a supply of trained teachers. As a rule these schools have been State institutions from the outset; in other cases Private Normal Schools have been taken over by the State.[3] Where there is but one school the students are drawn from the whole State: where there are two or more the range

the newer States provision was made in the constitution for the creation and maintenance of these institutions.

[1] C. H. Judd and S. C. Parker, *Problems involved in Standardizing State Normal Schools* (Bulletin No. 12, 1916), pp. 28–9.

[2] New York has three schools; St. Louis, Baltimore, Washington, Louisville, Richmond have separate schools for coloured students. Fuller details in Manny, op. cit., p. 13.

[3] e. g. Pennsylvania Schools were taken over between 1911 and 1920. For a survey of conditions prior to 1912 see E. O. Holland, *The Pennsylvania State Normal Schools and Public School System*, Columbia University, Teachers' College, 1912.

from which they are drawn varies with the nature of transport facilities. A City Training School, on the other hand, rarely draws any of its pupils from outside areas, and, while the State Normal School is usually either wholly or largely residential, the City Training School is not.

The size of these institutions varies with the area and the population which they serve. In Massachusetts—with ten schools rather smaller than the average—the enrolment ranges from 50 to 500, the average total enrolment for all being approximately 2,300. The four schools of Michigan, on the other hand, have an enrolment of more than four thousand students, two of them, those at Ypsilanti and Kalamazoo, enrolling 1,500 students each. The thirteen schools of Pennsylvania represent more nearly the average size throughout the States. With one exception the enrolment at these schools lies between 250 and 750, the total for the whole State being 8,633 in 1915–16.[1] The largest City Schools, the Brooklyn and the New York City Training Schools, have an enrolment of upwards of 800 and 1,000 students respectively, and admit students of either sex. Others approximate in size to the average State Normal School, but two-thirds of them are small institutions enrolling less than 100 students, all women.[2]

Residential Schools are planned on lines which remind us somewhat of the Council Training College in England, though there is not always the same separation of the educational block from the hostels. The latter, too, are as a rule on a much larger scale. Students usually ' room ' in pairs, though separate rooms for each student's use may in some cases be provided for an additional payment. There are often extensive grounds within which stand one or more Demonstration or Model Schools. These are also attached to many of the non-residential City Schools.

At first, owing to the inadequate supply of facilities for secondary education, students in Normal Schools were graduates from Elementary Schools, and the chief task of the Normal School was to carry on their general education. With the rise of the City Training School, and an increasing appreciation of

[1] *Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1917, vol. ii, Tables 1 and 12, pp. 447 and 464 et seq. The present enrolment (1921–2) is about 6,000.

[2] Manny, op. cit., pp. 145–9.

the importance of method, the course was prolonged and included more specific training for teaching.[1] Students remained for four years, of which the first two were as a rule devoted to general, and the second two to professional education. As High Schools have increased in number requirements for entrance to the Normal School have risen, and to-day some schools accept only High School graduates, while others are steadily raising the standard for admission. The effect of this has been to reduce the period spent in the Normal or Training School to two years, devoted solely to professional preparation. The standard of work likewise has advanced from approximately High School to College standard, and in the general scheme of education which is outlined on p. 286 the two years spent in the better Normal Schools may be regarded as equivalent to the first two years of College life. A strong tendency has become evident in recent years to increase the length and raise the standard of the course of study and training in State Normal Schools until it becomes equivalent to a complete College course. Thus a recent survey [2] yielded the following information :

	No. of Schools.	*Percentage of Total Number.*	*Enrolment, Autumn, 1921.*	*Percentage of Enrolment.*
Offering only Two-Year Courses .	52	31·1	12,201	17·0
Offering also Three-Year Courses .	24	14·4	9,870	13·8
Offering also Four-Year Courses .	91	54·5	49,556	69·2
	167	100·0	71,627	100·0

With the general questions of policy involved in this development we shall deal later. Meanwhile we may note that in practice it does not follow that in the Three- and Four-Year Schools all students will remain for the full period. The standard prepara-

[1] Probably the greatest impetus to the movement in favour of better professional training was the introduction of Pestalozzian methods by Edward A. Sheldon, Superintendent of Schools in Oswego (N.Y.) from 1861 onwards. For an account of the so-called 'Oswego movement' see Cubberley, op. cit., p. 295 et seq.

[2] Report of Committee of National Education Association (U.S.A.) on Teachers' Colleges, February 1922, published in *The American Schoolmaster*, May 1922. See also the *Quarterly Bulletin* (December 1920) *of the State Normal School, Mayville, North Dakota*, p. 8.

tion, for the Elementary Teacher in particular, is still the two-year course, of which we must now note the chief features. Longer courses are at present followed mainly by students intending to teach in Junior High Schools or High Schools, but the number of these is comparatively small. City Training Schools, it should be noted, are as yet but little affected by this movement.

Elementary Teachers. In its earlier form the Two-Year Course was the same for all students, but is now more frequently differentiated in order to prepare them for different types of Elementary School, rural or city, ungraded or graded, or for teaching children of different ages. There are often, too, special courses for intending teachers of Domestic Science, Agriculture, and Manual Training, but here again the tendency is to develop one or two of these courses in a given Normal School in addition to the more general work, or to set up separate institutions for specialized types of training. The former plan is followed in the States of New York and Michigan, for example, and of separate institutions for the training of specialist teachers the best known are the Massachusetts Normal Art School at Boston and the State Manual Training Normal School at Pittsburg.

The curriculum of the ordinary Normal or Training School for Elementary Teachers falls roughly into four main groups: (1) Education; (2) Observation and Practice Teaching; (3) School Arts—Manual Training, Drawing, Music; and (4) School Subjects. It is difficult to make any very precise statement about the distribution of time between these groups, but from returns collected by the Bureau of Education from State and City Schools it appears that about an equal amount of time is devoted to the first three, somewhere about double the time devoted to any one of these being spent in a study of school subjects.[1] Provision is also made for the inclusion of a number of electives or optional subjects.

Similarity of curricula yet leaves ample room for variety of interpretation. Abstract Psychology and the History of Education in classical and mediaeval times still hold their own in many

[1] Manny, op. cit., p. 31. For details with reference to a number of State Normal Schools see Judd and Parker, op. cit., p. 85.

Normal Schools in spite of frequent criticism, while in others the course in Education is narrowly utilitarian. The advance which has been made in the scientific study of Education has, however, had considerable effect. In the more progressive schools, under this heading, the student is at an early stage introduced to the aims and work of various types of schools with a view to guiding him in selecting his future sphere of activity: then he studies psychological theory in so far as it bears upon the work of the grades which he hopes to teach. In close connexion with the more theoretical study of psychology, and also with the period of student or practice teaching goes a course in ' School Economy or Efficiency ', which includes what in England is often called ' Class Management and Discipline ', as well as a certain amount of teaching method, and deals with the more general conduct of work in the class-room. In this course the teacher is introduced to such matters as the hygienic standards for and the care of class-rooms, the theory of the recitation, the making and keeping of records, as well as to the various kinds of technique appropriate to the age of children in the grades he is to teach—e. g. the value of dramatic expression for younger children, the project and problem method as applied to the various grades. Particular emphasis is laid on the value and use of intelligence and educational tests and scales of measurement. Thus, for example, the handwriting of students is often measured by one of the handwriting scales, and they in turn use the scale in measuring the handwriting of children. Similarly the use of standard measurements and tests in oral and written composition is taught, and so also with reading.[1] An outline of the History of Education in modern times is usually included in the curriculum, and towards the end of the training period there may also be provided a course on the philosophy or principles of education.

Of the more general subjects particular stress is laid upon English and History, for it is these subjects in the Elementary School curriculum which are of most service in dealing with America's chief educational problems—illiteracy and the assimilation of the alien immigrant.

Thus in the latter subject emphasis is laid in the earlier stages

[1] For examples of standard measurements see Strayer and Thorndike, *Educational Administration*, § 18.

upon the more social aspects of History, while in the later stages, American History and a discussion of the problems of a democratic community are in the forefront. In fact, throughout the training, students are made to feel that the school can play a large part in making useful citizens in a progressive and democratic community.[1]

When we turn from the subjects taught to the methods employed in the teaching of them we are struck by the large amount of time devoted to the 'recitation' or period of classroom instruction. In its narrowest sense this corresponds very much to what we term class teaching, but may include also periods spent in class work arising out of the formal teaching. In some schools students' time is so taken up in this way that there is little opportunity for private reading and study. Thus, for example, of thirty City Schools from which particulars were obtained in 1913, a few made no definite allocation for this purpose, and though in two or three cases provision was generous, amounting to ten and even fifteen periods, the average number of periods for the whole of the schools was only five in a week of approximately twenty-seven lesson periods.[2]

Practice or student teaching takes place either in a school under the complete control of the Normal School or in neighbouring schools under an arrangement arrived at with the responsible authorities. The latter is the more usual arrangement, particularly in cities, but the former is the ideal towards which Normal Schools are advancing, and where facilities exist full use is made of them. Thus the State Normal School at Indiana, Pennsylvania, has a Training School with a staff of nineteen teachers and an enrolment of 650 children, extending through all the grades from Kindergarten to High School. In addition to this there is a private High School, and a co-operative arrangement with the schools of the town which has proved so satisfactory that it will shortly be extended. The number of students at this particular Normal School is about 750 in the autumn and spring semesters (of 18 weeks each), and 1,000 in the shorter summer term of 9 weeks, so that even with these facilities it is no easy matter

[1] For details of the courses of study at several schools see Manny, op. cit., pp. 33 et seq.

[2] Manny, op. cit., pp. 57–8.

to provide adequate and responsible teaching practice for all students.[1] Where the number of students preparing for work in rural schools is large there is often a model ungraded one-room school in the campus or grounds.

The importance attached to this part of the students' training and the amount of time devoted to it vary with the purpose of the school. Where its activities are definitely confined to preparing teachers for Elementary Schools, as is usually the case in cities, practice teaching is all-important, and at least one-fourth of the time is devoted to it. In other Schools the proportion is at times rather less. In almost all cases, however, the periods of continuous teaching, as distinct from visits to schools for purposes of observation, are arranged to take place towards the end of the course. Of special interest is the arrangement at St. Louis, whereby students spend the first half of the senior year in teaching practice, and then come back to the Training School to reorganize their work on the basis of the problems which teaching has opened up.

There are two ways of arranging for practice in teaching. Under the first and less common arrangement the student is assigned to work with the Principal or administrative head of a school, and under his direction gains experience as a substitute for absent teachers, and as a helper in the office or in the various class-rooms. Under the second and more usual arrangement the student is placed in charge of a class teacher in the Training School or a local school used for the purpose. This teacher is known as a critic teacher, and in return for initiating students into the problems of teaching she [2] benefits by their assistance, and also receives additional payment from the authorities of the Normal School. The number of students assigned to each critic teacher varies considerably, and in some cases may be as many as 15 to 20, admittedly far too many for any one teacher to supervise. In the better organized schools the number is more usually 8 or 10, and with these the critic teacher holds frequent conferences for the planning of courses of lessons, giving special

[1] Prospectus.

[2] In 1915–16 only 19·6 per cent. of the teachers in State as distinct from City School Systems in America were men. See *Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1917, vol. ii, Table 10, p. 76.

demonstration lessons from time to time. Each student as a rule confines his attention to the grades in which he hopes to teach.

Various methods of co-ordinating the work of Normal and Practice Schools are to be found. In a few cases the head of the Normal School may also be the head of the Practice School. As a rule more informal methods of securing co-operation are used, as for example consultations between the staffs of the schools, or the appointment of the head of the Practice School to lecture to the students on Pedagogy, School Economy, or special teaching methods. Only occasionally do the lecturers on special subjects in the Normal Schools supervise the practice teaching of students.

The staffing of Normal Schools in the United States has presented a serious problem for many years. The relatively greater attraction of College work, the lack of an adequate supply of men and women who had made an advanced study of Psychology and Education and had also sufficient practical experience to make their instruction and guidance of value to intending teachers, and in some cases the lack of funds, have all combined to retard improvement in this matter. By 1913, however, a steadily increasing proportion of Normal School staffs had obtained a Bachelor's degree, and the more progressive schools were beginning to secure also men and women who had continued their study of Education after graduation. Complete statistics are not available and only a few illustrative figures can be given. In 1913 from 30 to 50 per cent. of the teachers in thirty City Schools had either a Bachelor's or some higher degree ;[1] by 1916 in thirty-two Normal Schools in the North Central States 31 per cent. of the Staffs possessed the M.A. degree and 7 per cent. the Ph.D. degree,[2] while in upwards of fifty institutions reporting to the National Education Association Committee on Teachers' Colleges, approximately 70 per cent. of the faculty possess degrees, 50 per cent. holding the M.A. or the Ph.D.[3] The better facilities which have been provided in Universities for post-graduate study, and particularly the excellent provision made by such institutions as Teachers' College, Columbia University, and the School of Education,

[1] Manny, op. cit., p. 83.
[2] Judd and Parker, op. cit., p. 17.
[3] Report of N. E. A. Committee, *American Schoolmaster*, May 1922, p. 178.

Chicago University, are proving a valuable means of increasing the supply of teachers with higher qualifications.

Along with the need for improvement in the quality of Normal School staffs goes the need for an addition to their numbers. Many schools are seriously understaffed, and the teacher's weekly ' load ' or amount of work is often excessive, particularly in schools which admit students on low or varied qualifications.

Training of Rural Teachers. In order to facilitate professional training, particularly of Rural Teachers, both States and cities have provided courses of shorter duration than the Two-Year Course which we have been describing. A few cities provide One-Year Courses in their ordinary Training Schools, and, in a number of States, County Training Schools or Classes are established to provide a course of one year's duration for teachers in the immediate vicinity. The cost of the latter is often borne by the State and the County conjointly, students are admitted on less than the full High School qualification, and prepare for work in rural areas and one- or two-teacher schools. The course of study comprises a review of the usual Elementary School subjects, with special attention to those most suited for Rural Schools, and also Psychology, School Management and Method. Experience in teaching under supervision is arranged for. In the Michigan County Schools, for example, this takes place in a special room under the control of an experienced critic teacher, herself a Normal School graduate. These schools or classes are small, the students numbering from 10 to 15. Thus from 47 County Training Schools in Michigan 667 students graduated in 1915.[1] Certificates are issued to those who successfully complete the course. These are of limited duration, but are usually renewable after satisfactory teaching experience has been gained.

High School Training Classes are found in almost every State in the Union, and in a number of cities also. Minnesota in 1915, for example, had 134,[2] New York State about 1913 had 95, and was also assisting similar classes in fifteen cities,[3] while in 1915–16 the total number of students following teacher-training courses

[1] *Report of Commissioner of Education*, 1915, vol. i, p. 182.
[2] Ibid.
[3] Monroe, *Cyclopedia of Education*, vol. iv, p. 468, article on ' New York State '.

in public and private High Schools was 38,456.[1] The general arrangement and purpose of these classes are much the same as for the County Training Schools, though in a few cities they are used to supplement the insufficient output of the Training Schools, rather than to provide teachers for rural areas. Sometimes a High School Training Class proves to be the precursor of a Normal School, in other cases it is used as a preparatory class for students who intend to pass on to a full course of training. The latter plan, however, finds little favour, as it is felt to involve a sacrifice of valuable elements in the ordinary High School course. In progressive States these classes are regarded merely as a temporary expedient.[2]

Secondary Teachers. The professional training of teachers for High Schools is a comparatively recent development, and, as in England, the necessity for it is not generally accepted. A Four-Year College Course with a special knowledge of the subject to be taught has hitherto been considered sufficient for the High School teacher, but the increasing attention now being given to the scientific study of education by the more advanced University Schools of Education has resulted in an improvement both in the facilities provided and in the numbers making use of them. These facilities take one or other of two forms. In the one case courses in Educational Psychology, the History of Education, and the methods of teaching special subjects, are provided by the University, with the addition of a certain amount of observation and practice teaching. In the other case the State Normal School, inspired either by opposition to the State University, or merely desirous of taking up a task which the University has found uncongenial, has extended its activities, secured larger funds from the State legislature, lengthened and raised the standard of its course, established practice High Schools on the campus, called itself a Teachers' College, and sought the power to confer degrees. Frequently the University has retaliated by establishing Practice Schools and generally strengthening its education courses, in many cases establishing a School of Education on the same footing as other Professional Schools.

[1] *Report of Commissioner*, 1917, vol. ii, p. 545.

[2] For fuller information as to the training of Rural Teachers see Monahan and Wright, op. cit.

The result is that the training of the High School Teacher is as yet a matter of controversy.

Further Instruction of Teachers in Service. At the moment the unqualified teacher is America's greatest educational problem and one which, owing to the inadequacy of the supply of trained teachers, is not likely to disappear for many years. The system of graded and temporary certificates which we have already described, stimulates teachers to a certain extent to improve their qualifications, though it has the disadvantage of helping to make teaching a temporary occupation.[1] A great deal of attention has been given to this problem, and probably the chief agency for enabling unqualified teachers to obtain some measure of professional training is the Summer Normal School of several weeks' duration, to facilitate attendance at which leave of absence, with or without financial assistance, is often granted. The movement has grown rapidly, and some idea of its extent may be gained from the following figures. Summer Normal Schools in the State of Louisiana in 1921 had an enrolment of 7,592 students, of whom 2,090 were negroes,[2] the Kent (Ohio) State Normal College Summer School enrolment was 3,020,[3] while for the Summer Schools held by the twenty largest Normal Schools and Colleges in the same year the enrolment was 36,748.[4] At these schools professional courses suitable for all types of teachers are provided: teachers, too, form a fairly large proportion of the students at Summer Schools arranged by other educational institutions. When we read that in the United States in 1921 there were 410 institutions holding Summer Schools, at which the total enrolment was 253,111,[5] we can understand that the effect upon the teaching population must be considerable.

For Rural Teachers the most common method of securing further education and training is by means of Teachers' Institutes. These have been described as gatherings of teachers who sit all day for four or five days listening to addresses on abstract

[1] The average service of a teacher in the public schools in the United States is less than five years (Bulletin No. 2, 1913; Monahan and Wright, p. 8). Statistics for individual States show that teachers with longer preparation remain longer in the profession.

[2] *School Life* (Bureau of Education), November 1921, p. 57.

[3] Ibid., p. 52. [4] Ibid. [5] Ibid., p. 51.

educational topics, and then go back to their schools to teach as they did before.[1] Apparently there is much truth in the description, but the better kind of institute lasts for a longer period (2 or 3 weeks) and does work comparable to that of a Summer Normal School, combining study, class teaching, and discussion. The institute is the affair of the county or other small unit, and its success depends on the initiative and enthusiasm of the School Superintendent. Indeed, it is the Supervisors of school systems who are responsible for most of the work done in improving the teaching force of the schools. Reading circles, conferences either of the staff in a single school or of teachers from a wider area, are among the means employed to quicken interest and improve efficiency. At some of these the course of study for the school district is discussed, and suggestions invited from teachers of the different grades for its improvement. These are particularly valuable features, inasmuch as American Head Teachers, unlike their English confrères, receive the course of study which their pupils are to follow, and often the time-table also, from the school authority. The real initiative in these matters lies with the School Supervisor, and it is a considerable step forward for teachers to be given an opportunity to express their views.

Administration and Finance. The administrative control of Public Normal Schools may take several forms. City Training Schools are usually under the direct control of the City Board of Education. For State Normal Schools there may be one or other of the following arrangements :

1. A separate Board of Trustees for each school with State officers as ex-officio members.
2. A special State Board of Trustees supervising only Normal Schools.
3. A State Board of Regents responsible for all forms of education.
4. A combination of State and Local control—e. g. a State Board of Education with Local Advisory Committees for each Normal School.[2]

[1] P. Sandiford, *Comparative Education*, p. 58.
[2] Judd and Parker, op. cit., pp. 32–3.

The particular form of control depends very much on the degree of co-ordination of the various elements in the educational system of a State. Thus Massachusetts, a highly organized State, has the third form, Missouri, founded later and with a less developed system, the first.

A special State Board for all Normal Schools has the advantage of securing better money appropriations from the legislature, promotes unity, prevents competition between individual schools for students, and renders more uniform the standards for admission, instruction, and graduation throughout the State. It also ensures more attention to the special needs of the schools than if they were controlled by the general State Board of Education. Advocates of the first or independent school system claim that it leaves more scope for initiative and secures greater interest of the locality in the school. Such a result, however desirable, does not always follow, and on the whole the tendency is towards increasing centralization within a State. The fourth method seems to combine the advantages of the others and to be the best.

Financially State and City Normal Schools are supported by annual appropriations made by local legislatures, the adequacy of these varying with the general attitude of the legislature towards matters educational. On the whole, the support they receive compares favourably with that accorded to other State-supported educational institutions, and in material resources Normal Schools are comparable to the smaller endowed colleges, with the difference that the latter supplement their income by charging fees while the former do not.[1] Attendance is usually confined to students from the area served by the school, but outside students are sometimes admitted on payment of a fee for tuition. This at Baltimore about 1914 was $42, at Chicago $150[2]. Where the school is residential students pay for their own rooms and maintenance. Particulars recently obtained from 165 students selected from eight widely distributed States give the cost to individuals of residence at a Normal School as ranging from $300 to $1,000, averaging $470.43 per annum.[3] Assistance is given by certain States towards the cost of training. Text-books,

[1] A registration fee is sometimes charged but is merely nominal.

[2] Manny, op. cit., p. 24.

[3] Hertzog, op. cit., p. 55.

for example, may be provided free or at a reduced price, grants are made towards travelling expenses, or towards the maintenance of needy students. Individual schools often maintain loan funds for the same purpose. A few States have recently tried the experiment of establishing scholarships for selected students, while Delaware and Maryland contemplate the payment of the expenses of all Elementary Teachers in training. Assistance to teachers wishing to attend Summer Schools is frequently given, and the State of Maine has recently devoted an annual appropriation of $20,000 to this object.[1]

Cities also have adopted a somewhat similar policy, and in many cases payment is made to students for practice teaching and regarded as a subsidy. In 1920, in New York City, this payment was $2 a day, in Baltimore $1.50 a day. In Akron, Ohio, Normal School students are paid at the rate of $50 a month during the two years of training.[2] In Indianopolis and Pittsburg there are bequests of which the funds are applied to the further instruction and training of selected teachers.[3]

The policy of increased financial assistance to intending teachers has many advocates, and as tuition is practically free to residents in the State or city by which the Normal School is supported, this aid would take the form of maintenance grants. Primarily this is a further attempt to reduce the number of unqualified teachers in the schools, but secondarily it is intended also to attract more candidates to the profession. Section 12 of the Sterling-Towner Bill proposes the appropriation of $15,000,000 'to encourage the States in the preparation of teachers for public school service, particularly in rural schools to provide and extend facilities for the improvement of prospective teachers, and to provide an increased number of trained and competent teachers by encouraging, through the establishment of scholarships and otherwise, a greater number of talented young people to make adequate preparation for public school service'.[4]

[1] Ibid., p. 64.

[2] Ibid., p. 66. In 1914 the figures were: New York, 75 cents, Baltimore, $1 (Manny, op. cit., p. 63).

[3] Ibid., p. 67.

[4] Quoted by Hertzog, op. cit., p. 57. The Commissioner of Education estimated that in 1920 there were 19,000 fewer Normal students and 7,000 fewer graduates from Normal Schools than in 1917 (Report 1920).

Great stress is laid on the fact that assistance of this kind is given to-day in most European countries. There is no doubt that under this arrangement a larger proportion of teachers would pass through a training course than hitherto, and that, as some form of pledge would probably be attached to the subsidy,[1] the average period of tenure would thereby be lengthened, but that subsidies necessarily attract more entrants to the profession or ensure a high standard of applicant is more doubtful. The former depends on the relative attractiveness of the profession, the latter on the range within which selection can be exercised. Particularly open to question is the suggestion that a system of subsidies will raise the status of the teacher in the community. Such at least has hardly been the effect in this country, and while this policy may, by increasing the number of trained teachers, help to build up a more unified teaching profession in the United States, it is conceivable that ultimately, as in England, the pendulum may swing back again, and the teacher be willing to forgo financial aid in order to regain professional independence.

Comparison with England. In the foregoing account of the American system of teacher training we have dwelt principally upon those characteristics which differentiate it from our own, and the more obvious differences between the two systems will therefore have been noticed by the reader. Of these the greater uniformity which prevails in this country as to certification and curricula is probably the most striking. Certain features, such as the attention paid to educational tests and measurements, to the social aspects of school subjects, and to the special preparation of the rural teacher, are more characteristic of the American system than our own, but in other respects the difference between the two systems is mainly one of degree. Thus, for example, in the United States the average State Normal School is larger than the average English Training College, teachers preparing for different types of schools are more frequently associated in one institution, and Normal Schools take a more active part in the instruction and training of teachers in service. On the other hand, while Normal Schools are free to residents of the State or

[1] A few education authorities already require a pledge of this kind. (Manny, op. cit., p. 23.)

City maintaining them, financial assistance for the maintenance of students in training has not yet been provided to the same extent as in this country, though developments in this direction seem to be imminent.

American observers of the English system call attention to other differences. For example, they note with considerable approval the greater emphasis placed in English institutions on the social and recreational activities of students, and regard these as important factors in the training of the teacher for leadership. On the other hand, they criticize both the curriculum and the methods of our Training Colleges. The former they regard as not being sufficiently vocational, too little time being given to the scientific study of education and educational procedure. Of the lecture method they disapprove, preferring class teaching which promotes, so they urge, an interaction and interchange of ideas between teachers and taught, and provides a practical illustration of what is meant by good teaching methods. As we have seen, many English Training Colleges combine the two, though the lecture still plays a prominent part. Finally, they point out that in making provision for the advanced study of education America is far ahead of England, a comparison the justice of which we in this country are obliged to admit.[1]

Future Policy. It is difficult to give an adequate description of a developing system, and comparisons made at any one time are apt to lose their point. The more rapidly a system is developing, the more necessary it becomes to examine general tendencies in order to determine its real character, and such examination will be more useful to us than a long-drawn-out comparison in points of detail. Three tendencies stand out as likely to modify the teacher-training system of the United States within the next decade or so. The first is the steady advance towards greater centralization, the second the movement in favour of a clearer defining of the purpose of the Normal School, while the third is what we may briefly term the Teachers' College movement.

The first great step in centralization is obviously from the smaller district such as the county to the State. Some degree of central control already exists in every State in the Union, and that it will be in the interests of the educational system to

[1] See also Sandiford, *Training of Teachers, passim.*

increase this control is becoming more and more widely understood. It is therefore in all probability but a question of time before many States will attain to something approaching the degree of centralization to be found in a few of the Eastern States. This development a Federal Department of Education, if and when established, will undoubtedly be able to facilitate. The next step, from the State to the country as a whole, will be more difficult, and there is not complete agreement as to the extent to which it is desirable. Inevitably with greater federal aid will go greater federal control, but it would be contrary to American constitutional precedent to introduce anything like the centralized control known in this country. 'Standardizing' is a term often used in connexion with the Normal School problem in the United States, and perhaps it expresses as well as any other single word the general conception prevailing in that country of the functions of a Central Department of Education.[1] A more uniformly high standard of preparation for teachers, followed by the inter-state recognition of certificates, are among the advantages which it is felt a Department of Education could confer, without at the same time robbing the system of its variety and flexibility, and local units of their autonomy.

Along with this movement towards centralization and standardization goes an even more urgent demand for definition of the function of the Normal School in the interests of efficiency. It will be remembered that while some Normal Schools arose as places of secondary education, others (notably the City Training Schools) were from the first attached closely to Elementary School systems as the training-ground for their teachers, while yet a third group have extended the scope of their activities into the field of College and University. As to certain general principles there appears to be agreement. It is felt, for example, that Normal School reform to be effective must take place from within rather than be imposed from without, that the standard for entrance needs to be raised so as to become the completion of a full High School course, and that the courses of study offered should be overhauled in order to make them more suitable for the training of teachers. In the latter connexion

[1] e. g. Title of Bulletin No. 12, 1916, *Problems involved in standardizing State Normal Schools.*

emphasis is placed on the need for a more definite centring of the whole course upon the practical work in teaching done by the student. But beyond these general questions there is considerable divergence of opinion. Should the Normal School offer a two-year or a longer course? Should it train teachers of all types, or confine its attention to the Elementary Teacher? What relation, if any, should the Normal School bear to the University? These and other questions are brought to a head in what is known as the Teachers' College movement, the most outstanding development in the training system of the United States.

The Teachers' College may be defined as a professional school for the training of teachers, with a four-year curriculum, requiring High School graduation for entrance and granting the bachelor's degree. A recent writer on the subject has defined it more fully as 'a Normal School that has attained its majority, receiving High School graduates, training them for four years in cultural and professional subjects, qualifying them to teach in the public schools, "kindergarten", "grades" or "high", and granting them in evidence of scholarship and didactic proficiency a College degree'.[1] As a type the institution is by no means new, for three- and four-year courses terminating with a degree have for many years been offered by a few Colleges. But it is only within the last twenty years that this has become very definitely an ideal to be aimed at by all Normal Schools. Apparently this is due to the rapid growth of High Schools, for on the one hand the demand for additional facilities for the preparation of High School teachers has opened up a new field of activity for the Normal School, while on the other hand the increased provision for education of High School standard has gradually narrowed down the Normal School to a purely training institution, and laid it open to the criticism to which the English two-year Training College has in the past been so often subjected—the charge of turning out the efficient but mechanical and half-educated teacher, and of maintaining a traditional uniformity, the uniformity of mediocrity.

The progress of the movement in the last ten years has been

[1] *Quarterly Bulletin of State Normal School, Mayville, North Dakota*, December 1920, article by Dr. J. O. Evjen on 'The Teachers' College', p. 2.

rapid. Out of a group of 60 institutions included in a recent survey by the National Education Association, there were in 1916 only 15 Teachers' Colleges. Between 1916 and 1921 the number offering a four-year course above High School increased to 45, and to-day (1922) 51 out of the 60 also confer the bachelor's degree. That the movement is widespread is shown by the fact that these institutions are to be found in 23 different States representing every section of the country, East, West, North, and South.[1] The number of State Normal Schools now offering four-year courses is shown on p. 296, and within a few months it is possible that most of the remainder will have taken a similar step. This does not mean that the two-year course is abolished, though some institutions have even gone so far as to do this, and to require the full four-year course of all teachers. What usually happens is that the bulk of the students follow the two-year course, but that courses for students intending to teach in Junior High Schools and High Schools are extended to three and four years. The ultimate elimination of the two-year course is, however, contemplated.

The arguments advanced in support of the movement can best be expressed in the words of its advocates. Thus a report on the Normal School situation in California in 1920 emphasizes the fact that these institutions offer too little opportunity for development, and too much occupational drill and grind ; that curricula are overcrowded ; that the Normal School stands up for continued pupilage in school, and leaves too little margin for students' activities ; that culture is being crowded out in favour of highly specialized dress-sections of public school technique ' until we have the absurd spectacle of a solemn-faced program of making out of an inexperienced young woman, fresh from the factory-like processes of the modern large High School, a specialist in drawing, in music, in manual training, in physical education, in agriculture, in rural school teaching, in city school teaching, in tests and measurements, etc., etc., all in the period of 72 to 78 weeks '. The report goes on to point out that the Normal School would be making a sad mistake if it should attempt to become a college in the ordinary sense of the term. It must

[1] Report of Committee published in *The American Schoolmaster* (State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.), May 1922, p. 165.

remain professional, a 'trade school', but should be one with a cultural or collegiate basis. It should give a four-year course. The State should prescribe the minimum essentials of a sound teacher-training course in the subjects of pedagogy and sociology, while the school should formulate the rest of the programme.[1]

Further reasons are adduced in a report prepared by a Committee of the Principals of Normal Schools in Massachusetts. 'The present two-year Normal School course is entirely inadequate to prepare students properly in both scholarship and technique for the comprehensive demands upon the grade teachers of to-day. As an indication of some of the work that has been added in the last 15 or 20 years to the programme of the grade teacher, one might mention agriculture, nature-study, citizenship, Americanization, English to foreigners, manual training, art, music, hygiene, thrift, work with sub-normal pupils, &c.

The Normal School does not have the same dignity and standing that the College enjoys. Consequently the High Schools urge their students to choose College rather than Normal School. If the Normal School compared favourably with the College in length of course, and in conferring a degree, it is clear that the attitude of the High School Teachers would change more in favour of the Normal School, and many students would seek the four years of education that would be offered by the Normal School who are either prepared to go to College or in many instances are deprived of either opportunity.'[2]

The most complete and authoritative statement of the arguments in support of the movement is to be found in the Report on Teachers' Colleges to which reference has been made earlier in this chapter.

'For a quarter of a century the conviction has been gaining strength throughout normal school circles that the best interests of American education demanded that so far as possible and practical normal schools should extend their curricula into the senior college field. This conviction rests on the following reasons:

1. The schools of the future should demand on the part of the

[1] Report of State Normal School, San Diego. Quoted in *Mayville Quarterly Bulletin*, p. 12.

[2] Report by Principal W. B. Aspinwall of Worcester, Mass. Quoted in *Mayville Quarterly Bulletin*, p. 13.

grade teacher more than two years of preparation beyond high school. The modern elementary curriculum is rich in intellectual, social, and cultural material, and cannot be administered as it should be by one who has not had broad and generous preparation. The normal schools are finding it impossible to give in two years the solidity and breadth of training which the elementary teacher needs.

2. Another reason is the economic. . . . Teachers are drawn largely from homes of limited economic resources. . . . As a rule, a year of instruction in a normal school costs not much more than 60 per cent. as much as a year of instruction at the university of the state in which the normal school is located.

3. Again, the normal schools find it difficult, if not quite impossible, to sustain a faculty of a high degree of educational and professional attainment with a course limited to two years. . . . The extension of their curriculum to four years and the accepting of college standards relative to the length of the school year and the hours of teaching would make it easier for the normal schools to attract to their faculties men and women of broad and productive scholarship.

4. Then, too, the normal schools have felt the lack on the campus of what in college circles are called upper-classmen. . . . An institution that keeps its students but two years, one half of whom are every year new to the campus, cannot develop the traditions, customs, and atmosphere which many of us prize as the most helpful and educative and lasting influences of college life.

5. It is not good educational policy to turn over to colleges and universities exclusively the function of training high school teachers. Monopoly tends to breed stagnation. Competition is the life of trade. . . . The gospel of professional training has been preached up and down the land by the normal schools, just as the gospel of academic preparation has been preached by the universities. Each needs the stimulating influence of the other.

6. A few years back the universities and the normal schools were to a certain extent competitors for students. That day apparently has gone by. The universities find themselves crowded and with no hope of increasing their capacity sufficiently to take care of the students who will knock annually at their doors. Consequently they are the more inclined to welcome the extension of the normal school curriculum to four years, seeing in that measure a relief for their undergraduate work and a means of strengthening their graduate schools.' [1]

[1] Report of N. E. A. Committee drawn up by President C. McKenny, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich., *The American Schoolmaster*, May 1922, pp. 166–8.

Making due allowance for the spirit of competition with College and University which so evidently breathes through these statements, we may discern, nevertheless, behind the movement a feeling that intending teachers, whether for Elementary or Secondary Schools, need a longer and more liberal preparation than the majority have hitherto received. Moreover, a change of this kind will bring training institutions again into line with the general scheme of American education which, in theory, if not always in practice, assigns to the College the years which lie beyond High School and precede graduation, and to the University the period of post-graduate study. To the Teachers' College would be assigned the collegiate phase of education and training, to the University the advanced study of education. The change corresponds, too, with the differentiation which is taking place within the field of higher education whereby in place of the one type of High School or College there have sprung up many types, commercial, agricultural, industrial, as well as those offering more general courses.

How far this development will prevent competition and overlapping is a matter of conjecture into which we need not enter. For us its special interest lies in the fact that a movement in favour of longer courses for teachers is one of the tendencies in this country also, and the suggestion is often put forward that these longer courses should also be vocational. Indeed there are signs that some of those who are most interested in the future of our teacher-training system are looking to the United States, and to the Teachers' College movement in particular, as furnishing an example which English Training Colleges would do well to follow.

XIII

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE

Arrangements for the professional training of teachers in France have from the beginning been so closely and so definitely related to her educational system that some little examination of the latter must form a necessary preliminary to our consideration of the former. As with the United States it will be sufficient to note the chief characteristics.

The first of these is extreme centralization. At the head, since 1828, has been the Minister of Public Instruction,[1] controlling a number of bureaux, each under a director, and assisted by two advisory councils, one (the *Conseil Supérieur*), consisting mainly of teachers elected by their peers, the other (the *Comité Consultatif*), of teachers and inspectors appointed by the Minister. A staff of general inspectors [2] directly subordinate to the Minister, and appointed on his nomination by the President of the Republic, provides the means whereby the central organization keeps in touch with local authorities. Of these the most important are the rectors and councils of the seventeen academies or districts into which the country is divided for administrative purposes.[3] The rector, appointed by the President, is responsible for all forms of education in his area. In the supervision of secondary and higher education he is assisted by a council, composed principally of representatives of these two branches, and by academy-inspectors[4] appointed by the Minister from teachers in Secondary Schools. These officers also provide the means whereby the rector keeps in touch with primary education, for by virtue of their position as vice-presidents of Departmental Councils they exercise a controlling influence in that part of the system.

[1] His full title is *Ministre de l'Instruction Publique et des Beaux-Arts*.

[2] Thirty-eight in all: 4 are women specially charged with the inspection of *Écoles maternelles*.

[3] At first the number of academies was 26 (Napoleonic Decree of 1808); reduced in 1854 to 17.

[4] Usually one for each department: the department of the Seine (in which is Paris) has 8.

Here, in the Departmental Council, we find for the first time local representatives in the English sense of the term. Presided over by the prefect, and composed mainly of inspectors, directors of Normal Schools, and teachers in Primary Schools, this Council includes also four representatives of the General Council of the Department elected by their colleagues. The initiative, however, rests with the president and vice-president, while the actual supervision of Primary Schools is carried out by primary inspectors, who are appointed after competitive examination, are immediately responsible to the general inspector, and are therefore officers of the central department carrying its influence into every school.

Local interest in the schools may find expression in other ways. Thus the *maire* may visit any public or private school in his commune, as may also the members of the Departmental Council or delegates appointed by them. There are also local School Commissions in each commune presided over by the *maire*, but the activities of all these are confined to more general questions, such as the provision of school buildings and the material welfare of the pupils.

Financially, too, the degree of centralization is very great. From the commune the State collects taxes which it supplements by grants, and, with the funds thus obtained, a large part of the cost of the educational system is met.[1] Upon the locality, particularly the departments and communes, falls the duty of providing and maintaining buildings; the former also provide scholarship funds and assist needy communes, while the latter are responsible for the residence allowance to teachers which is required by law.

The machinery appears complicated, but works smoothly on account of the careful delimitation of the sphere of action of each authority and official. Changes, other than the more radical reforms introduced by organic laws, and also any changes necessitated by such laws, are effected by decree of the President of the Republic acting on the advice of the Minister of Public Instruction, and the issue of a decree is accompanied or followed by detailed regulations (*arrêtés*) drawn up by the Minister, and

[1] e. g. salaries of inspectors, departmental officials and teachers: maintenance of Normal Schools.

binding upon all state-aided institutions, as well as by more general communications (*instructions*) to rectors, prefects, and inspectors.

A second characteristic feature of the French system is to be found in the large part played in educational administration by teachers and inspectors. On all committees or councils, from the comparatively small School Commissions of the communes to the larger Councils which assist the Minister of Public Instruction, one or more of these will be found, and, when we remember that most of the inspectors have previously been teachers, we can readily see that, within the limits prescribed by the system, the influence of the teaching profession must be considerable.

The third characteristic consists in the nature of the distinction drawn between primary and secondary education. Unlike the United States, France does not regard these as grades in a larger whole, but as distinct systems. Each is designed to serve a specific purpose, and passage from one to the other, though not impossible, is the exception rather than the rule.[1] The primary system (and particularly the Primary School) is essentially for the people, for the workers in agriculture, industry, and commerce, for the rank and file of the great army of labour. In its lower levels it may, and in the larger centres of population usually does, make provision for the child's earliest years, by means of *Écoles maternelles*; in its higher levels, by means of Supplementary Courses (*Cours complémentaires*) and Higher Primary Schools, a further preparation is given to those who are to be, as it were, the non-commissioned officers in the same army. The secondary system also makes provision for the whole school life of the child, in the earlier years by means of primary and elementary classes, and later in the ordinary classes of the *lycée* or *collège*.[2] Traditionally, at least, secondary education in France is essentially classical in character and a preparation for the professions, but by the introduction of alternative courses in 1902, provision has also been made for those who wish to study modern subjects and to prepare for other walks

[1] Scholarships are available but are little used.

[2] *Lycées* are State-established and maintained Secondary Schools. *Collèges* are established and maintained by the communes, though the staff is paid by the State. For organization within each system see Diagram, p. 455.

in life.[1] The advisability or otherwise of retaining these more modern courses in their present form is probably the most burning question of the hour in educational circles in France.

The fourth characteristic follows as a matter of course from the first. Within the different parts of the system there is considerable uniformity, not, it is true, the excessive uniformity of earlier years, but still far greater than anything we know in England to-day. Centrally controlled institutions, prescribed curricula, an elaborate system of examinations—all are aspects of this uniformity which the following pages will amply illustrate.

Training Institutions. Provision for the professional training of teachers in France is made in institutions of three different kinds. First and most numerous are the Departmental Normal Schools for Primary Teachers; then come the two Higher Normal Schools for Secondary Teachers, and lastly we have two institutions known as Higher Primary Normal Schools, established for the express purpose of training teachers for the Departmental Normal Schools.

Primary Normal Schools as they exist to-day date from 1811, when the first of them was established in the academy of Strasbourg.[2] Others followed, but no very great advance was made until a law of 1833 required each department to set up a Normal School for boys, if necessary by co-operation with one or more neighbouring departments. A further law of 1879 made the provision of separate schools for girls also obligatory, and to-day there are in all 179 Primary Normal Schools, of which 88 are for women students.

The first successful attempt[3] to provide for the training of Secondary Teachers was the work of Napoleon I, who, when he created the University of France in 1808, planned also a Higher Normal School for men; this institution was temporarily suppressed in 1822, but revived eight years later. A separate institution for women Secondary Teachers was not established until 1881, by which time the demand for teachers in girls'

[1] The reforms of 1902 are discussed at length in *B. of E. Special Reports*, vol. xxiv, 'Secondary and University Education in France': see also F. E. Farrington, *French Secondary Schools*, ch. vii.

[2] The first Normal School in France was founded by La Salle (Founder of the Brothers of the Christian Schools) at Rheims in 1681.

[3] An ambitious but short-lived attempt was made in 1795.

Secondary Schools was making itself felt. The newly-established Primary Normal Schools for girls were also in need of teachers, and to meet this further demand the first of the Higher Primary Normal Schools was founded at Fontenay-aux-Roses in 1880, to be followed by a similar institution for men two years later at St. Cloud. The work of all these schools will be examined in the following pages.[1]

Primary Teachers. In accordance with the principle whereby primary and secondary education in France are regarded as parallel and independent the Primary Teacher receives the whole of his education and training within the primary system. Educated in his earliest years in the Primary School he passes on to a Supplementary Course in the same school, or to a Higher Primary School, the latter being preferred on account of the better staffing conditions which prevail. Here he remains until he enters a Departmental Normal School at the age of fifteen.[2] An entrance examination is held each year, usually in the chief town of the department, and the names of successful candidates are arranged in order of merit.

The number to be admitted to each Normal School is fixed by the Minister of Public Instruction on the advice of the prefect and the Departmental Council, and after consultation with the rector of the academy. Hitherto the number of vacancies has always been less than the number of successful candidates, and failure to secure a high position on the examination list has meant exclusion. Now, however, owing to a law of 1919 [3] which requires every Primary Teacher after 1923 to have spent at least one year at a Normal School, failure to secure admission in the usual way will not necessarily mean total exclusion. Normal Schools, hitherto wholly residential, must now make provision for day students, in order that unsuccessful candidates and teachers in service may, under certain conditions, obtain the one year of training required by law. All candidates who pass the examination, whether admitted to the Normal School or not,

[1] For a fuller historical account see F. E. Farrington, *Public Primary School System of France*, chap. viii, and the same author's *French Secondary Schools*, chaps. iii, iv, and xv.

[2] Until 1920 the minimum age for admission was 15½ years (or, to be precise, 16 on 31 December of the year of examination).

[3] Law of 6 October 1919.

receive the *brevet élémentaire*, hitherto the minimum qualification demanded of all teachers in Primary Schools.

The full course in the Normal School lasts for three years. An internal examination takes place at the end of each year, and the whole course is terminated by an external examination for a diploma known as the *brevet supérieur*, after which the *normalien* [1] passes out into the schools to serve for a time as a *stagiaire* or probationer. As a rule probationary service must continue for two years, but any time spent in the Normal School after the age of eighteen (seventeen for girls), may be included. At the age of twenty, or later, if the two years' probation has not been completed, the teacher enters for the first purely professional examination, the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*, and, if successful, becomes eligible for promotion to the rank of *titulaire* or regular teacher. His name is placed on a list compiled by the academy inspector, and the length of time which elapses before promotion depends on the number of vacancies for regular teachers which occur in the schools of the department. Once he has become a *titulaire*, he is a civil servant, practically assured of employment, salary with increments, and pension, subject, of course, to satisfactory conduct and service.[2]

This, then, in outline, is the course followed by the French Primary Teacher to-day, and on its completion he corresponds approximately to the Trained Certificated Teacher of the English system. France, too, like England and the United States, has her untrained and unqualified teachers. All the examinations to which we have referred are open to other than Normal School pupils on compliance with the necessary conditions as to age or service. It is true that professional training is desired by most intending teachers because it increases the chances of promotion, but the policy of limiting the output of Normal Schools has in the past restricted the supply of trained teachers and rendered the employment of others inevitable. A number of these have no higher qualification than the *brevet élémentaire*.

Three aspects of the preparation which we have summarized

[1] The more usual term is *élève maître* (for girls *élève maîtresse*), but the use of the English equivalent, ' pupil-teacher ', has been avoided in this chapter to prevent confusion with the English ' intending teacher ' of the same name.

[2] The preceding paragraphs summarize briefly the Regulations (*arrêté*) of 18 August 1920.

above will be of special interest to English readers, the character of the prescribed courses of study and training, the nature of the examinations to be taken by the teacher, and the qualifications and preparation of the staffs of Normal Schools.

The first differentiation of the prospective teacher from other pupils in the matter of curriculum takes place in the Supplementary Course or Higher Primary School. Here the regulations of 1920 prescribe the introduction, after the first year,[1] of specialized courses parallel with and in place of the more general course, in the case of pupils who wish to prepare for the teaching profession, for agriculture, industry, commerce, or for girls who wish to obtain some knowledge of domestic science. Intending teachers form what is known as a Normal Section: certain subjects of the general course are omitted, and, in the case of optional subjects, students are advised to choose those which will be needed in the examination for admission to the Normal School, or which will form a basis for further study in those institutions. The time saved by specializing in this way is estimated to vary from two to six hours and is devoted to private study.[2]

The Curricula of Primary Normal Schools are prescribed by the Minister of Public Instruction, and the subjects studied, as well as the distribution of time between them are shown in the table printed on page 324, compiled from the official programmes.[3] For each subject the Minister issues a detailed syllabus, suggesting, but not rigidly prescribing, the ground to be covered in each of the three years of the course. These syllabuses cannot be discussed at length; as with the United States it will be more profitable to indicate only the character of the instruction provided in the theory and practice of education. The former is comprised under the headings of Psychology, Sociology applied to education, and Pedagogy, and the Director of the Normal School is personally responsible for the instruction in these subjects: the latter consists mainly in observation and teaching in Primary Schools.

The first year's work is introductory: a study of the elements

[1] A measure of specialization may also take place in the first year.

[2] *Décret*, 18 August 1920, ch. iii, sect. 1, arts. 35–6. *Arrêté*, ch. iii, sect. 1, *Instructions*, Part II, p. 36. All published in one volume as *Organisation et Programmes des Cours complémentaires des Écoles Primaires Supérieures et des Écoles Normales*.

[3] The distribution of time each day (except Thursdays, Sundays, and Festivals) is also prescribed. See p. 324, note 2.

of Psychology, of aims in education, and of the general principles underlying class-room procedure, with a preliminary discussion of teaching method, prepare the student for the more specific training in teaching Primary School subjects which takes place in the second year. In this year he is also introduced to Sociology and to a consideration of its bearings on education, and under the guidance of his teachers reads and discusses selected passages from modern or contemporary writers on education, particularly those who have laid the foundation of modern educational theory and practice. In the third and final year the course again becomes more general. For an hour each week the student is instructed in the general principles of Science and Ethics.[1] Topics such as the relation of Science and Ethics, the meaning of liberty, moral and social responsibility, are also discussed. Parallel with this is a course in what may be termed Professional Ethics and School Administration, designed to give the future teacher a clear conception of his duty towards those members or groups of society with which he will come in contact. Thus he learns that as representative of the State he must accept restrictions, particularly upon speech and conduct, and must teach nothing which is contrary to the principles embodied in the State. Under the heading of School Administration he is introduced to the main provisions of the law relating to primary education, and the most important regulations which have been based upon them.[2]

Practical training in teaching must include a minimum of fifty half days in each year spent in a Primary School; girls must spend part of the time in an *École maternelle.* The distribution of this training throughout the year is left to the director of the Normal School, and, as the number of students to be provided for will shortly be increased, he will be allowed to send them further afield, to schools other than those immediately connected with the Normal School.[3] As the training proceeds

[1] Thus he is familiarized with deduction, the method of the mathematical sciences, with observation and classification, the methods of the natural sciences, and with the estimation of the value of evidence in moral science.

[2] *Instructions,* 30 September 1920. Pt. III, *Éducation professionnelle.*

[3] These are the *École annexe,* under the direct control of the Normal School, or the *École d'application,* an ordinary Primary School used for the school practice of students. The former is the more usual arrangement. Ibid., *Enseignement professionnel. Exercices pratiques.*

CURRICULA OF PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOLS.[1]

Subjects of Instruction.	*Hours per week.*[2] *Men and Women.* 1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	*Total.*
Psychology and Sociology applied to Education. Pedagogy. Ethics. Scientific Philosophy	2	2	2*	6*
French Language and Literature	4†	4†	4†	12†
History and Geography	3	3	2½	8½
Modern Languages	2	2	2	6
Total of Literary Instruction	11	11	10½	32½

	M.	*W.*	*M.*	*W.*	*M.*	*W.*	*M.*	*W.*
Mathematics	3	3	3	3	2	1	8	7
Physical and Natural Science. Hygiene. Practical Work (and Domestic Economy for Women)	4	4	4	4	4	5	12	13
Agricultural Theory	½	—	½	—	1	—	2	—
Total of Scientific Instruction	7½	7	7½	7	7	6	22	20
Artistic Design and Modelling	2	2	2	2	2	2	6	6
Geometrical Design	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3
Singing and Music	2	2	2	2	2	2	6	6
Physical Exercises	2	2	2	2	2	2	6	6
Manual Work and Agriculture	4	—	4	—	4	—	12	—
Household Economy (Sewing, Mending, Washing, Ironing, Cleaning) and Horticulture	—	4	—	4	—	4	—	12
Total	11	11	11	11	11	11	33	33
Total for all Subjects	29½	29	29½	29	28½	27½	87½	85½

[1] *Arrêté*, 18 August 1920, ch. iv, sect. iv.

[2] The daily routine is as follows: 8 hours sleep, 5 hours meals, recreation, &c., 5 hours private study, preparation of lessons or teaching practice, 4 hours class instruction, 2 hours singing or manual work. Girls are to have an additional half-hour for recreation. *Arrêté*, 18 August 1920, ch. iv, sect. v, Art. 97.

* Excluding the weekly exercise in Pedagogy for third-year students (see p. 325).

† Excluding students' private reading.

the degree of responsibility placed upon a student is progressively increased, until in the third year he is placed in sole charge of a class for a continuous period, under the guidance of the director and staff of the school in which he is teaching.

Various attempts are made to co-ordinate theoretical instruction and practical training. Directors of Normal and of Practising Schools are expected to assist students to relate the two, and weekly conferences or discussions take place during the third year. On these occasions one of the students either gives a lesson to children, discusses a question of method or discipline, expounds a page of a pedagogical text-book, or criticizes a piece of work done by children. The director of the Practising School and teachers in the Normal School are expected to take part in these conferences: students are encouraged to offer criticisms, which in turn are criticized by their seniors.[1] Apart from this the staff of the Normal School, other than the director, take no active part in the practical training of students.

Although the syllabuses of instruction prescribed for other subjects cannot be discussed here we may note an increasing tendency to allow teachers in Normal Schools more liberty in arranging their work than formerly. A certain measure of differentiation is also contemplated. Thus it is suggested that students who are likely to become teachers in rural schools might pay special attention to those parts of the syllabus in science which bear most on agriculture, while in industrial areas the emphasis might be on the sciences of most service in industry. Above all, the teaching is to be practical, and its underlying aim and general character may be gathered from the following extract from ministerial instructions.

'The instruction in Normal Schools must be quite different from that in Higher Primary Schools. In the latter the object was to provide the pupils with a certain amount of useful knowledge: in the former the knowledge is to be deepened. Although instruction, even in the Higher Primary Schools, should become more and more practical, the lesson and the text-book necessarily play an important rôle. In the Normal School young people must be brought directly face to face with realities and original documents; lectures and books should only be used to summarize conclusions arrived at by pupils . . . instead of

[1] *Instructions*, 30 September 1920. Pt. III. See also *Arrêté*, ch. iv, sect. v, Art. 100.

confining themselves to reading books, they should read the book of nature.... It is not sufficient to say that the method of teaching in the Normal School should be a practical method; it should be practice itself.' [1]

The next feature which we have selected for notice is the system of examination for teachers' certificates. For the Primary Teacher three examinations are prescribed—the first two for *brevets de capacité*, and the third and most important for the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*. All three possess several characteristics common to most examinations in the French educational system. First of all they are external, being conducted by representatives of the central authority with little or no collaboration with the teachers of the candidates. Secondly, they are conducted by Commissions, or examining boards, appointed in accordance with ministerial decrees, and finally, each examination comprises two series of tests, one of which is always oral, while the first series in the case of the earlier examinations is a qualifying test for entrance to the second. The arrangements will be clearer if we illustrate by summarizing the procedure in the first and last of the three examinations, corresponding in a general way to the Preliminary Examination for the Certificate and the Certificate Examination of the Board of Education in this country.

The Commission for the *brevet élémentaire* is nominated by the rector of the academy, and always includes the academy inspector as president, the heads of the Departmental Normal Schools for men and women as vice-presidents, other teachers from the same Normal Schools, a primary inspector and a primary teacher. The list of eligible candidates is drawn up by the academy inspector. The first of the two series of tests is written, the second oral; both are based upon the curriculum of the Higher Primary School. The written tests are set by the rector in consultation with the academy inspectors, and are sent to the presiding officer of the examination in a sealed envelope. The five tests of this series take place on the same day, usually at the Departmental Normal School. Each paper is seen by at least two examiners, and only candidates who succeed in obtain-

[1] *Instructions*, 30 September 1920. Pt. III, *Écoles Normales. Éducation générale.*

ing 50 per cent. of the total marks possible may be admitted to the tests of the second series. Failure to obtain marks in any one paper is also a disqualification.

The second series lasts for a few days, and as many candidates as can be accommodated reside at the Normal School, paying their own expenses. In all there are six oral tests, each of about fifteen minutes' duration, followed by tests in drawing, needlework (for girls), singing, and gymnastics. These tests are conducted by members of the Commission in groups of two or more, and when the results of the second series have been considered by the whole Commission the names of candidates are arranged in order of merit. The number of admissions to the Normal School for the year having already been determined, it is possible to announce the names of those who have been successful in securing admission before candidates leave for their homes.

The academy inspector also plays a leading part in the examination for the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*, appointing such commissions as may be required in his area, and sometimes presiding over them in person.[1] As before, candidates make application to him and must satisfy him as to age (twenty years), certificates (*brevet supérieur* or approved equivalent), and experience. The first of the two series of tests is practical, the second oral, and the examination is arranged to take place as soon as possible after a teacher has completed his *stage* or period of probation. The practical test consists in taking charge of a class for three hours, during which time the candidate must give, among other lessons, one in physical exercises and one in singing. The test takes place in the school in which the teacher is engaged as *stagiaire*—if a woman candidate desires, she may teach in an *École maternelle* or a Girls' School.[2]

The second and oral test comprises questions on school administration on the lines of the syllabus prescribed for Normal Schools, on class organization and methods of teaching, together

[1] Each Commission must include the primary inspector or inspectress, one head teacher of a Primary School, and one other teacher from the staff of any school in the primary system. If the academy inspector presides over a Commission in person he has the primary inspector and a teacher as assessors.

[2] In this case the inspectress of the *Écoles maternelles* will be a member of the Commission, which will also include a head teacher from the same type of school.

with a test in the criticism of scholars' note and copy books.[1] This part of the examination lasts at least half-an-hour, and on its conclusion the examiners look through the teacher's note-book and consider any reports which may have been made upon his work by the inspector. These are taken into consideration in awarding the mark for the practical test, and half marks must be secured in both tests in order to qualify for the Certificate.[2]

Turning now to the third of the features selected for examination, the staffing of Normal Schools, we find again ample illustration of the French love of system, and also of the centralization to which we have several times called attention. All teachers in these institutions are appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, and their numbers, qualifications, hours of teaching, and to a great extent their duties also are prescribed by ministerial decree.

At the head of the school is the director, who must be not less than thirty years of age, and hold a special certificate for the inspection of Primary Schools and for directing Normal Schools. This he may obtain at the age of twenty-five, and the five years which elapse before the directorship of a Normal School can be secured are usually passed in the inspectorate, in some ways an excellent training. The remainder of the staff must hold a special Certificate for teaching in Normal Schools, or for teaching in a Secondary School. Sanction is occasionally given to the employment of others with lower qualifications; thus, for example, a teacher who has passed only the first part of the examination for the certificate for Normal Schools is sometimes approved as a temporary expedient. Finally, for the teaching of modern languages, drawing, singing, music, gymnastics, and manual instruction, additional and part-time teachers may be appointed, each of whom must possess a recognized certificate for the teaching of his subject.

The number of teachers allowed may be mentioned here as illustrating the small size of many of the French Normal Schools. Omitting the director, the bursar, and part-time teachers, there should be three professors in schools with 36 pupils; if the

[1] A scholar's *cahiers* or exercise books are regarded as of very great importance in French schools, and constitute a permanent record of his progress.

[2] O. Forsant. *Vade-mecum de l'Enseignement primaire* gives the regulations for the above examinations in a convenient form. See also *Arrêté*, 18 August 1920.

number of pupils lies between 36 and 70 the staff must be increased to four (two professors for letters and two for science), while more than 70 pupils would necessitate the addition of another member to the staff. More than two-thirds of the schools are included in the first and second groups, that is, are schools with less than 70 pupils.[1]

Normal School staffs are recruited from several sources. Some of the professors come to the work after considerable experience within the primary system as teachers and inspectors, a few may be drawn from the ranks of the less qualified Secondary Teachers, while others are appointed direct from the Higher Primary Normal Schools of Fontenay-aux-Roses (women) and St. Cloud (men), institutions founded, as we have already noted, specifically for the preparation of teachers for Normal Schools. These schools are so important and unique a feature of the French Primary System that we propose to describe them more fully a little later in the chapter.

Recent Changes. The regulations now in operation for the Training of Primary Teachers have only been in force since 1920, and no students have as yet completed a course of training in accordance with them. It will, therefore, be some years before a reliable estimate can be made of their value, but as they embody several important modifications of the system which has prevailed since 1905, it will be instructive to note what the chief of these are, and the object which the Minister had in view in making them. They may conveniently be grouped under the three headings of discipline, curriculum, and finance. Of these, the first two are the most significant, and will be discussed here, an explanation of the financial changes for the moment being deferred.

The predominant characteristic of the disciplinary arrangements in a French Normal School in the past (as also in most French *lycées*) may be summed up in the phrase 'constant supervision'. Games and other out of school activities have

[1] *Arrêté*, 18 August 1920, ch. iv, sect. ii; or Forsant, op. cit., p. 148 et seq. For details of each Normal School see *Annuaire de l'Instruction publique et des Beaux-Arts*, 1922. Only the director and bursar are required to reside on the premises. Other members of the staff may be allowed to do so if they wish, but must pay a stated sum for maintenance and assist in the supervision of students.

rarely formed a strong feature of these institutions, and students have had few opportunities for the exercise of initiative:[1] only third-year students seem to have received any direct training in responsibility. The decree of August 1920 attempts to change this. All students are now to undertake duties which have hitherto devolved only upon third-year students, and student committees are to be formed to arrange details; girls may now go unattended for walks or to church, subject to the approval of the directress. Regulation clothing (provided by the State) is to be abandoned, though students must still be neatly dressed.[2] Doubtless the relaxing of the earlier régime is due partly to the impending influx of one-year non-resident students, older and more accustomed to responsibility, but it represents also a genuine attempt to fit students to control others by giving them an opportunity of controlling themselves. Compared with the freedom enjoyed in most English and American Colleges, and especially in Universities, these concessions and privileges appear but slight, but we must remember that the age of admission to the Primary Normal School is only fifteen years, and that even with a three-year course French students will be completing their training at the age when an English student is about to enter a Training College. Even so we cannot but regard these concessions as a step in the right direction.

Equally important and more far-reaching are the changes in curricula. These affect both the earlier and later stages of the Primary Teacher's preparation. In Higher Primary Schools and Supplementary Courses the Normal Section, with its relatively restricted curriculum, is a new feature, while in the Normal Schools themselves significant changes have taken place. Thus from 1905 onwards the student's course was divided into two parts by the examination for the *brevet supérieur* which came at the end of the second year. The first two years were devoted to general education, the third to professional studies; at the end of the whole course came still another examination, that for the certificate which testified to its successful completion.[3] Under

[1] For a description of life in a *lycée* see Farrington, *French Secondary Schools*, ch. viii, or, more briefly, G. Gastinel, *L'enseignement secondaire en France*, p. 50 et seq.

[2] *Instructions*, 30 September 1920. Pt. III, *Écoles Normales. Régime intérieur.*

[3] *Certificat de fin d'études normales.*

the revised regulations general and professional studies are carried on together throughout the whole of the three years, and the *brevet supérieur* is granted upon the result of the final examination at the end of the course.[1]

To English readers this change will be of interest inasmuch as France is definitely abandoning an arrangement of curriculum often advocated in this country. The purpose of the change is thus described by the Minister of Public Instruction.

'The reform of 1920 aims at restoring to the Normal Schools a clear perception of their special rôle: at no time, from the time of the entry of the student until he leaves, will his instructors forget that he is to become a teacher. His professional education should be their chief care and should begin on the first day of the first year. But for a man whose mission is to teach others, general education is an integral part of professional education. The teacher ought to have knowledge. He must, in the Normal School, carry his literary and scientific studies further than in the Higher Primary School.'

It was a defect of the old régime, say the *Instructions* from which the above is quoted, that, after two years spent in marking time at the level already attained in the Higher Primary School, the student was suddenly brought into an entirely different atmosphere, with studies and methods more akin to those prescribed for University students.

'Now' (to continue our quotation), 'progressively, no longer by a sudden leap, he will pass from the level of the third year of the Higher Primary School to the level of good pupils of the philosophy class[2] or of first-year students of our Universities. This is the degree of general culture which the reform of 1920 attempts to impart to *normaliens* . . . who will not cease for a single day to serve an apprenticeship to their profession as teachers. The Normal School thus conceived will not be confused with any other place of learning, and it is precisely in order to fit it better for its true purpose that the new reform has been effected.'

The change is further justified as a natural development, though outwardly it would seem to be merely a reversion to

[1] *Rapport du Ministre . . . au Président de la République Française*, 14 August 1920.

[2] The name given to the highest class in a Secondary School. Gastinel, op. cit., p. 32.

a practice abandoned in 1905. It is pointed out that the changes introduced in that year brought into the third year of the training course a freer and more liberal régime, which the reform of 1920 extends to the whole period: now, as in the earlier reform, the aim is 'to raise the level of culture of future teachers and to make them not merely holders of a certificate but educators'.[1]

One further change may be mentioned here, a change rather of method than of curriculum. Part of the training in teaching has for many years been somewhat artificial in character; for example, students would give lessons intended for children without a class of children being present, or would deliver a 'popular lecture' to an audience consisting solely of fellow students. These practices are now to be abandoned in Primary Normal Schools, and for all exercises in teaching or lecturing there must be a class or an audience of the right kind.[2]

Viewed as a whole these and other changes effected by the Decree of 18 August 1920 represent an attempt not merely to make the training course more practical, and therefore more effective, but also to weaken and eventually to eliminate what is known in France as *l'esprit primaire*. This a French teacher describes as 'a habit of arriving at conclusions hastily and without sufficiently considering the complexity of the facts . . . an attitude of mind which results in the use of words of which the meaning is not sufficiently understood, and which accepts appearances without penetrating to the root of the matter'. This spirit the earlier Normal School programmes were calculated to foster, inasmuch as they involved a repetition of the studies of the Higher Primary School, and laid great emphasis on a knowledge of facts. The revised programmes, on the other hand, are no longer concentric, and, though facts are still to be taught, the methods of teaching are to be practical and experimental, and students are to be led on from facts to the comprehension of general ideas. By introducing newer methods of treating old subjects, and by the addition of such a subject as Sociology to the curriculum, the reform endeavours to give a more philosophical outlook to the future Primary Teacher.

[1] Quotations from *Instructions*, 30 September 1920, Pt. III.

[2] Ibid., *Éducation professionnelle. Exercices pratiques.*

It is already evident that to students in Normal Schools the new programmes come as a welcome change from the curricula of the Higher Primary Schools. It will be some years, however, before the spirit of the reform can find adequate expression. Traditional methods of teaching a subject die hard under a system where centralization is so great and tradition so strong, and the programmes assume a much higher standard of general education in the entrants to Normal Schools than is likely to be obtained for some time. In theory the reform meets with much approval, but there is a tendency to regard it as too idealistic. The subjoined extracts from letters written by teachers in Normal Schools probably represent very fairly the present attitude of the staffs of these institutions. Thus one professor is of opinion that 'the new programmes are due to intentions which are undeniably excellent, but both in principle and in details they are utopian. They do not correspond to the actual conditions under which teaching takes place in Normal Schools, and still less to the low intellectual standard of the students. I should prefer to see greater attention to the teaching of facts, careful generalization not being excluded, but yet not being made the basis of instruction'.

Another, more enthusiastic, writes: 'This is at bottom a "microscopic" reform which aims at changing the orientation of the teaching (in Normal Schools) in order to produce in time new intellectual habits. . . . A dozen years hence it will be possible to judge of the results. I think they will be good.'

We, too, must reserve judgement, but in the light of our experience in this country we cannot but sympathize with the attempt now being made to give to the Primary Teacher a more liberal preparation, or, as the French very concisely would say, *déprimariser les primaires.*

The Higher Primary Normal Schools. To complete our account of the training of Primary Teachers it is necessary to give some account of the Higher Primary Normal Schools at Fontenay-aux-Roses and St. Cloud, features of the system which have attracted much attention, and which have an additional interest inasmuch as it is sometimes suggested that similar institutions might be established in this country. Their main purpose, it will be remembered, is to prepare students for the

special certificate for professors in Normal Schools,[1] the staffs of which are largely, though not wholly, recruited from this source. Both institutions are situated in the suburbs of Paris, and as they have many features in common it will be sufficient to describe one of them, the school for women at Fontenay-aux-Roses, and afterwards to note the distinctive characteristics of the school for men at St. Cloud.

Thanks to the founder, M. Pécaut, the Higher Primary Normal School at Fontenay has from the time of its institution in 1880 differed markedly in atmosphere and tone from the ordinary Departmental Normal School. Housed in an excellent building in a pleasant environment, the students are allowed both freedom and privacy. Each has a separate bedroom, and outside the class-room her time is her own. Group study-rooms are provided, and the general equipment is on a liberal scale. The number of resident students is about sixty, and a few non-residents are also admitted.

The examination for admission resembles in many details that for admission to Departmental Normal Schools, and constitutes also the first part of the examination for professorships in Normal Schools. Candidates must be between the ages of nineteen and twenty-five, must hold the *brevet supérieur* or one of the diplomas granted by girls' Secondary Schools, and must also agree to serve for ten years in the public schools.[2] They are drawn from various sources but chiefly from Departmental Normal Schools, a few of which (in the larger towns) devote a fourth year to the preparation of students for the competitive examination for entrance to Fontenay and St. Cloud. Others come from Secondary Schools, and from the ranks of acting teachers in various parts of the primary system. A few already hold the certificate for professors in Normal Schools, and wish to qualify as directresses of the same institutions. The number of candidates is always greatly in excess of the number of vacancies, about 50 per cent. of those entering for each of the two series of tests being eliminated. The final test takes place in the Normal School at Paris, the earlier one in the chief town

[1] Certificat d'aptitude au professorat des Écoles Normales et des Écoles Primaires Supérieures.

[2] *Programme des conditions d'admission aux Écoles Normales Supérieures de Fontenay-aux-Roses et de St. Cloud*, pp. 5 and 11.

of each academy. Half the members of the examining Commission are professors of the Higher Primary Normal Schools.[1]

When entering her name for admission the student must specify whether she proposes to study letters or science,[2] and once in the school she specializes in the subjects comprised in the programme prescribed for her group; she is also required to attend classes in modern languages, pedagogy, and ethics. Formal lectures are given by visiting teachers from Paris (men), specialists in their subjects, and among the best to be found in the higher ranks of the secondary system. In addition to these there are resident women teachers who conduct class work, and generally play the part of tutors to the students. These assistants are selected from the best teachers in Departmental Normal Schools.

Practical training in teaching plays a much less important part in the course than might be expected, particularly as many of the students aspire to be heads of Normal Schools, responsible for the practical training of others. Lectures to fellow students, followed by criticisms from them and from the staff, still constitute the chief method of training, but as most of the future professor's work will consist in teaching a particular subject, the preparation received in this way is of more value than at first appears to be the case. And it should always be borne in mind in this connexion that the course of study in the Higher Primary Normal Schools is designedly cultural rather than professional.

At the end of the two years of the course comes the second part of the examination for the certificate for Professors of Normal Schools. On this occasion the second series of tests includes two lessons, each of half an hour's duration, one upon a geographical or historical subject, and the other on a pedagogical subject. Three hours are allowed for preparation from prescribed books and without assistance, and further tests follow in the exposition of passages from French and Latin authors, for which a shorter period of preparation is allowed. Candidates recommended by the examining commission receive the desired certificate from the Minister.[3]

A few students remain for a third year or enter the school in

[1] For fuller details see Forsant, op. cit., pp. 312–16.

[2] The number of vacancies for students in each section is fixed beforehand

[3] Forsant, op. cit., pp. 316–18.

order to qualify as directresses of Primary Normal Schools. They are selected by the Minister after consultation with the rectors of academies, and when at Fontenay supplement the usual course by a special study of psychology applied to education, and of school law and administration. The final examination follows the same general lines as the rest.[1]

St. Cloud, the corresponding institution for men students, differs from Fontenay in several respects. Here the students, about fifty in number, are divided into three groups according as they are studying letters, science, or applied science, the practical instruction given to the third group being a notable feature of the institution. All students are resident, but there are no resident tutors as at Fontenay; the same high standard of teaching by visiting professors is maintained, and the staff is allowed complete freedom in drawing up curricula and courses of study. No provision is made for visits to Primary Schools.

A further difference between these institutions must be taken into consideration in estimating their value to the primary system. Almost all the heads of Primary Normal Schools for girls are recruited from Fontenay, but the same is not true of Normal Schools for men. The heads of these are taken from the primary inspectorate, in which there are but few women as yet, and students from St. Cloud who wish to become directors of Normal Schools usually attain the position through this channel. Some become ordinary professors in Primary Normal Schools, others with the necessary qualifications pass into Secondary Schools as modern language teachers. A number of those who have studied applied science take up service in Higher Primary Schools.[2] The Higher Primary Normal Schools, therefore, do not supply all the needs of the Primary Normal Schools. For this reason the examination for the certificate for professors of Normal Schools is open to students not resident at St. Cloud or Fontenay, subject to certain conditions of age and experience. Nevertheless these special institutions are of great importance for the primary system. The freer life which students enjoy, the freer conditions under which the highly-qualified staffs do their work, and the high standard of teaching maintained, cannot fail

[1] Forsant, op. cit., p. 319 et seq.

[2] Farrington, *Public Primary School System of France*, ch. xii.

to influence in some measure the standards of teaching and the life in Departmental Normal Schools.

Secondary Teachers. The separate organization of primary and secondary education in France extends also to arrangements for the certification and training of teachers. With the exception of those who are in charge of preparatory classes, for which highly qualified Primary Teachers are selected, all teachers in Secondary Schools, whether *lycées* or *collèges*, are both educated and trained within the secondary system. The certificates which entitle them to teach range from the *baccalauréat*, or bachelor's degree, granted on the completion of a Secondary School course, to the *agrégation*, the highest and most coveted distinction in the profession.

Let us glance for a moment at the staffing arrangements of a boys' *lycée*. For convenience we may divide the members into three groups according as they are concerned with administration, teaching, or discipline. To the first group we may assign the head master (*proviseur*) and the bursar (*économe*). The teaching staff proper consists of professors and acting professors, while discipline and general control are entrusted to the *censeur*, under whom are supervisors—tutors (*répétiteurs*) in the daytime, and dormitory *surveillants* at night. The duties assigned to each of these groups are clearly defined by ministerial decree, as are also their qualifications, hours of work, and rates of remuneration.[1]

The qualifications of the less important teachers may be quickly summarized. *Surveillants* are usually students with the bachelor's degree who are preparing for a higher examination; *répétiteurs* are of two grades according to whether they hold the *baccalauréat* or are *licenciés*;[2] teachers of elementary classes (ages ten and eleven) must possess a *licence* or a special certificate for the particular type of work in which they are engaged.[3] The principal members of the teaching staff, however, are the professors of classes, men who are at least twenty-five years of age, possess the *agrégation*, and who, before appointment, have spent at least five years in the educational service of the State. Where teachers with these qualifications cannot be obtained,

[1] For further details see Sandiford, *Comparative Education*, ch. iv, 2 (by A. H. Hope), or Gastinel and Farrington, op. cit.

[2] The *licence* is a University degree approximately corresponding to an English B.A. Hons.

[3] e. g. Certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement des classes élémentaires.

others with lower qualifications may be appointed as acting professors, a practice more common in *collèges* and provincial *lycées* than in the larger *lycées* of Paris and other cities.

The standard qualification for a secondary teacher in France is, therefore, the *agrégation*, and as it is only in preparation for this that any professional training is given, we shall confine ourselves to a discussion of its main features. Nothing quite of the same kind is to be found in the English educational system : it corresponds in some respects to a University fellowship, in others to a Civil Service appointment obtainable only after competitive examination. Briefly, the *agrégation* is awarded on the result of a competitive examination held each year at Paris for a certain number of vacancies as professors in Secondary Schools. The whole of the arrangements are under the control of the Ministry, acting through a special Commission. For men there are eight different kinds of *agrégation*, for women only three.[1]

Candidates must have obtained a *licence* two years previously, must hold a *diplôme d'études supérieures*, and produce a probation certificate from the vice-rector of the academy to the effect that at least three weeks have been spent in gaining teaching experience in a *lycée*.

The number of *agrégés* to be admitted in a given year is fixed by the Minister of Public Instruction, whose estimate is based upon the needs of the schools : as there are fewer Secondary Schools for girls the number of vacancies for women is fewer than for men. The standard of examination is high, but the position of the *agrégé* is an enviable one. The State undertakes to find employment in a State *lycée*, if desired, so long as the teacher is able to render adequate service in return, and while in a teaching post the *agrégé* is entitled to an extra remuneration of 500 francs a year.[2] Needless to say, competition is very keen.

For so difficult an examination special preparation is obviously needed, and this is usually obtained by men at the Higher Normal School at Paris, and by women at the Sèvres Normal

[1] For men : philosophy, letters, grammar, history and geography, modern languages, mathematics, physics and chemistry, natural science. For women : letters, history, science. The *agrégation* in letters is the recognized qualification for teaching Latin and French to the two highest forms, that in grammar for teaching the same subject to the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth.

[2] A few seniors are granted a further allowance. Sandiford, *Comparative Education*, p. 299.

School, both of which can only be entered by competitive examination between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four. Indeed, for many students preparation begins in the last year of the Secondary School, when the bachelor's degree or its equivalent has been obtained, and more specializing is permitted. Arrangements for entrance to these institutions correspond to those described in connexion with Departmental Normal Schools. Admission is by order of merit, but a certain number of those who come next on the list receive scholarships which enable them to continue their preparation for the *agrégation* at the Sorbonne[1] or some other University. Each successful candidate must undertake to serve for ten years in the public schools, and in default to refund the value of his scholarship or the cost of maintenance and training. Unsuccessful candidates often remain in a special class in the Secondary School for two or even three years in order to try again to win the coveted distinction. Should a student be obliged to abandon the attempt he may yet obtain an appointment on the staff of a *collège*, and may even in time become an acting professor in a *lycée*.

Since 1903 the Higher Normal School for men has been an integral part of the University. The director and assistant director, the one an *agrégé* in letters, the other in science, are members of the corresponding faculties of the University, and for most of the instruction in general subjects students from the school attend lectures by the University staff. Indeed it is only for specifically professional instruction and training that they are differentiated from other University students. These occupy a relatively small part of their time, and begin in the second year with lectures at the Normal School on various subjects, as, for example, the development of the French secondary system, the relation between pedagogy and psychology, the organization of public education. In the final year attention is concentrated upon preparation for the *agrégation*. Lectures are given by University Professors in what may be termed 'special method',[2] but a great part of the time is devoted to a form of exercise which has been discontinued in Primary Normal Schools. Students prepare criticism lessons in their subjects, but give them to fellow students. As training in teaching a class of boys this type of exercise seems to be of little value. We must bear in

[1] The University of Paris.

[2] See also p. 345.

mind, however, that the methods of teaching in French Secondary Schools are well established by tradition, and as a means of developing ability to handle subject matter and to present it logically and clearly the training is excellent. The remainder of the practical training consists in spending three weeks in a *lycée*, and in gaining a little information as to school organization by means of occasional visits to Primary Schools.

Arrangements for the admission and instruction of women teachers at Sèvres correspond in many ways to those at the Higher Normal School for men, but the former institution is not so closely connected with the University. The professors, all men, are almost all teachers at the Sorbonne or at the Collège de France. They visit the school weekly, and the students,[1] during the intervening period, are in charge of resident tutors (women), an arrangement which we found also at Fontenay. At the end of the second year students enter for the second part of the examination for the certificate for teaching in Girls' Secondary Schools. The first part must have been passed before entering the School and both are open to other than Normal School students. Candidates from Sèvres who fail to secure this certificate are not allowed to remain for a third year. This final year is devoted to preparation for the *agrégation*, and practical experience is gained in a girls' *lycée* which has been assigned to the Normal School for this purpose. Unsuccessful candidates for the *agrégation* experience no difficulty in obtaining teaching posts in *collèges* and in the smaller *lycées*.[2]

Here in the *agrégé* we have the French conception of a well-equipped Secondary Teacher. Matthew Arnold, an admirer of the French educational system, spoke of these teachers as 'thoroughly trained and tested staffs of professors',[3] but the English reader will probably agree with Mr. Herbert Ward when he questions the effectiveness of their training as teachers, while admitting the thoroughness of the testing to which they have been submitted.[4] We may none the less readily accept the

[1] Varying from 60 to 80 in number.

[2] For a fuller account of the training of Secondary Teachers see Farrington, *French Secondary Schools*, ch. xv.

[3] *Bryce Commission Report*, vol. v, pp. 94 et seq. Memorandum on the Training of Teachers of Secondary Schools in France, by Mr. Herbert Ward. An excellent critical account and still true in many respects. Mr. Ward begins by quoting Matthew Arnold's dictum and proceeds to determine its accuracy.

[4] H. Ward, op. cit., *passim*, especially pp. 111–12.

testimony of an eminent French educationalist who speaks of them as a *corps d'élite, une des forces morales du pays.*[1]

Finance. The more general features of the administration and finance of the French system of training teachers have already been touched upon, but there are one or two which call for further notice. First among these is the provision made for financing the preliminary education of Primary Teachers. This, it will be remembered, usually takes place in the Higher Primary School, and among recent changes has been the introduction of special scholarship arrangements for those who intend to become teachers in Primary Schools.

Prior to the Decree of 18 August 1920 scholarships for children in Higher Primary Schools were of two kinds, according as they were awarded by the Minister of Public Instruction or by the prefects. Now all awards are in the hands of the Central Authority, which defends itself against the charge of *centralisation à outrance* on the ground that the change will make for a more equitable distribution. Conditions as to age (twelve to sixteen) and examination are the same for all candidates, and all scholarships are probationary for the first year. Those who compete for scholarships as intending teachers, however, are required to present an undertaking from the parent or guardian to the effect that they will enter for the competitive examination for admission to a Normal School in due course. Subject to these conditions they have one considerable advantage. For other candidates the value of a scholarship depends on a number of factors, the merit of the candidate, the number of children in the family, the position of the parents, and the service they have rendered to the State. The standard value for a scholarship is fixed annually for each department, at a rate calculated to cover the cost of instruction and residence at the school, and candidates may be granted more or less than this amount after a consideration of the above factors. Intending teachers, however, if considered of sufficient merit, receive in any case the standard amount, so that where the candidate enters at an early age the whole cost of preliminary education and maintenance will be met out of public funds.[2]

[1] M. Gastinel, op. cit., p. 38.

[2] *Arrêté*, 18 August 1920, ch. iii, sect. iii. Des Bourses. The number of Normal Scholarships to be awarded in each department is fixed annually by the Minister.

In the Normal School also the whole cost of instruction and maintenance is met by the State, which makes grants to the Department at a rate per student fixed each year for the particular School. Non-residents receive a maintenance grant equivalent to the cost of maintenance of a resident, and at the end of the course each student receives a gift of books of his own selection to an amount fixed by the administrative council of the School and met out of its annual budget. But this is not all. At the end of the three-year course the student may, if he so desires, become a competitor for a scholarship enabling him to prolong his stay at the Normal School in order to prepare for the entrance examination to the Higher Primary Normal School, or for one of the more advanced certificates which are open to teachers in the primary system.[1] Thus we see that to-day, in France as in England, it is possible for the Primary Teacher to obtain the whole of his education and training at the expense of the community. To the share of the departments in this expense we have already referred—they provide the Normal School buildings and equipment, but may also, if they choose, supplement State grants in various ways.

The finances of a Departmental Normal School are under the immediate control of an administrative council presided over by the academy inspector, and including four members appointed by the rector, and two elected by the General Council of the Department. This board exercises a general supervision over the administration of the School, and approves the annual estimate for presentation to the Minister. The officer directly responsible for keeping the accounts of the institution is the bursar (*économe*), who also supervises the domestic arrangements.[2]

Administratively and financially the Higher Primary Normal Schools are on a different footing. They are State institutions in every sense, being established, maintained, and controlled by the Minister of Public Instruction, who appoints an administrative council for each school, and includes the annual cost of maintenance as a separate item in his Annual Budget.[3]

The two Normal Schools for the training of Secondary Teachers

[1] *Arrêté*, Art. 77. For his fourth year a student may have to transfer to another Normal School where provision is made for the special preparation required.

[2] Farrington, *Public Primary School System of France*, ch. ix.

[3] Ibid., ch. xii.

are also directly maintained and controlled by the Ministry. Residents in them are wholly maintained by the State, but the value of scholarships held by non-resident students at the Sorbonne or other Universities varies in accordance with their financial position.[1]

Teachers in private schools. Throughout this brief account of the French system of teacher training we have confined our attention to State and communal schools. But in France, as in England and America, there are numbers of private schools, and the way in which the Central Authority deals with them and with their teachers is highly instructive in view of the attempt made to deal with the same problem in this country by the Education Act of 1918. One simple principle underlies the attitude of the State towards these institutions—no school must be allowed which is a danger to the health or the morals of any members of the community. Hence no school may be opened except after compliance with certain conditions as to public notice, and, if allowed to open, an institution must conform to various rules. Thus, for example, it must be open at all times to inspection by duly accredited representatives of the State and the local authority, and a register must be kept at the school containing full particulars of the teachers employed—age, qualifications, and previous experience, all of which details have been verified by the academy inspector. No one may teach in any capacity in a private school under the age of eighteen years if a man, seventeen years if a woman ; the head must be at least twenty-one years of age if the school is a Primary School, twenty-five years if it is a Higher Primary School. Most significant of all, the same diplomas are usually required of these teachers as are required of those holding similar appointments in public schools.

Regulation by the Central Authority in this way does not deprive private schools of all freedom. The officials who inspect concern themselves solely with the hygienic condition and moral tone of the school, the qualifications of the teachers, and with ascertaining that none of the forbidden books are used.[2] Programmes, syllabuses, and methods of instruction, are, it is true,

[1] Farrington, *French Secondary Schools*, ch. xii.

[2] The use of certain books is forbidden by Ministerial decree. Lists for public and private schools are given in Forsant, op. cit., pp. 387 et seq.

largely determined by the necessity of preparing pupils for the competitive examinations which admit to the Universities or professional schools, but in the sphere of general organization there is room for experiment. Thus, in the field of secondary education, an attempt has been made to plant on French soil institutions like the English Public School, and in the revival of the Écoles Libres (Church Schools) we have a renewed attempt to perpetuate that combination of religious and secular education which the State system deliberately avoids.[1]

General Characteristics. A few general characteristics are worthy of special notice before we leave this part of our study: some of them have already been mentioned, but merit further emphasis. First among these is the important part played by teachers and inspectors, not merely in administration, but in determining the fitness of candidates for the various diplomas. Where, as in the case of the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*, the examination includes a practical test in teaching, this is a valuable feature of the system, and, together with the oral tests and the probationary period before appointment as *titulaire*, should provide an effective safeguard against the admission of the inefficient to the ranks of the regular teachers.

This probationary period is a provision which compensates in some measure for the relatively small amount of time even now devoted to gaining practical experience in schools. In the secondary system there is no such period, though the still scantier provision for professional training would seem to render it the more necessary. It must be remembered, however, that programmes are prescribed by Ministerial decree, that in Secondary Schools each teacher is a specialist, and that for each subject a traditional method has been evolved. Some of these are limitations which can hardly make for true educational development, but they help us nevertheless to understand why so little emphasis has hitherto been placed on the practical side of the Secondary Teacher's preparation.

For much the same reason, doubtless, the advanced study of education has not been developed to any considerable extent by French Universities. The Higher Normal School for Secondary

[1] The subject is too complex to pursue here. But see Cloudesley Brereton, *Studies in Foreign Education*; and for the position since 1914, F. W. Roman, *The New Education in Europe*, ch. iv.

Teachers is sometimes referred to as the 'School of Pedagogy' of the Sorbonne, but at present it is so only in a limited sense. Courses of lectures are provided at the University in the Science of Education and Experimental Pedagogy which students from St. Cloud and Fontenay as well as the Higher Normal Schools may attend. These are, we may hope, but the first steps towards bringing about a closer connexion of these institutions with the University. Elsewhere the only provision for the study of education seems to be confined to courses of lectures at Lyons, Lille, and Nancy.[1]

Another characteristic which may well be emphasized here is the combination of centralized control of the training of Primary Teachers with a strongly localized system of Normal Schools. From the date of entering the Primary School as pupil to the time when he completes his *stage* or probationary period, and becomes a *titulaire*, the Primary Teacher usually remains within the same department, not compulsorily, it is true, for of recent years an increasing freedom of choice has been allowed at various stages.[2] In practice there is little migration, for professional advancement depends very much on the reports of inspectors. Extreme localization is, therefore, the result, and though it is sometimes urged that by moving inspectors frequently from district to district stagnation is prevented, such an arrangement cannot be to the best interests of either teachers or taught.

Finally, if we omit the extreme centralization of the system, its most striking characteristic is the deliberate adaptation of each part to serve a particular purpose, and to further the interests of the whole. Of this we have recorded particular instances in the reform of the Normal School curriculum and the establishment of Higher Normal Schools to provide staffs for the Lower. It is this order and symmetry which has in the past aroused the admiration of observers from other countries, and, whether or not we approve of the whole which the parts are designed to serve, or see defects in the working of the machinery, we, too, cannot but admire the care with which it has been framed.

The Future. For France, even more than for England and

[1] *La Réforme de l'Enseignement secondaire . . . articles publiés Octobre 1921 à Janvier 1922 par l'Éducation*, pp. 87–8.

[2] e. g. a student may, under certain circumstances, be allowed to enter the Normal School of another department than that in which he resides.

far more than for the United States, the period of the war bids fair to prove an epoch in educational development. It is true that the immediate future seems to hold little in the way of radical change, and retrenchment is the order of the day. But meantime the desire for efficiency is combining with a re-awakened spirit of democracy to question the established order in education. The centre of conflict is a suggestion of the Minister of Public Instruction for a revision of the programmes prescribed since 1902 for Secondary Schools. In place of the four parallel courses now prescribed he suggests that there should be a uniform course for the first three years, and afterwards a division into classical and modern sides, with the *baccalauréat* at the end of the former, and a secondary diploma at the end of the latter. During the first three years all pupils would study Latin as part of the regular course, while in the last of these preliminary years Greek would similarly be introduced. Into the merits and demerits of this suggestion we cannot stay to enter, but it has proved a focus for the discussion of many problems.[1] Here are but a few of the questions which are being propounded: What is the purpose of secondary education—to form an *élite d'intellectuels* by means of a classical education, or to give a liberal and varied education to all those who are capable of benefiting thereby? Should Secondary Schools and Universities remain accessible only to a small section of the community or be thrown open freely to all? Is the solution to be found in a common curriculum for all schools and classes for younger children, or in a common school open to all irrespective of rank or fortune? More directly bearing upon the problems of teacher training are such questions as these: Why should not Primary Teachers be recruited from the *lycées* and *collèges* of the secondary system? Could not a closer connexion be established between the Higher Primary Normal Schools and the Sorbonne? Furthermore when we learn that the traditional methods of teaching are being severely criticized by French teachers, that in some of the most successful private schools the extreme forms of specialization hitherto prevalent in *lycées* have been abandoned and the

[1] *La Réforme de l'Enseignement secondaire . . . articles publiés . . . par l'Éducation.* These articles discuss the ministerial project from every point of view and provide the reader with an excellent résumé of present-day movements and tendencies in French secondary education.

form-master restored, and that the dread of initiative characteristic of so highly centralized a system has come to be felt as an evil—when we hear of these things we may venture to suggest that the time may come in the not too distant future when some of the features which we have described as characteristic of the French system will be modified. There are signs, too, that when the minds of her people are less distracted by the urgency of economic and political problems, France may seek expression for her ideals through a system of education independently evolved but yet approximating more nearly to that of England or of the United States.

In this re-orientation of her system she will not be alone. Germany, so long the most typical of all continental countries in matters educational, has taken the first steps in the same direction. The *Grundschule* or Common School is already an established fact, and arrangements for teacher-training, 'those fossils of the past history of civilization,'[1] are to be completely modified. Not many years hence the Elementary Teacher will no longer pass from the Elementary School to spend six years at the Normal School, cut off from any and every outside influence, but after four years at the *Grundschule* will pass on to a nine-year course at a Secondary School, finally attending special courses in the theory and practice of education for two years at a University.[2]

These are momentous changes and should encourage us to face our problems the more hopefully, realizing that, while a country's salvation educationally cannot be found by any means so simple as the adoption of the systems and ways of other peoples, yet we can from their experience learn much that will be of real help to us in our own efforts at reform.

[1] *Supra*, p. 34.

[2] For a discussion of modern tendencies in education in France and Germany see Roman, op. cit.

XIV

THE FUTURE—RECENT EXPERIMENTS AND SUGGESTED DEVELOPMENTS

Although the historical survey which preceded our examination of the present system of teacher training ended at 1914, and subsequent chapters have shown that since that date no radical changes have taken place, the last few years have seen three developments of sufficient importance to merit a brief notice before we examine the various schemes of reform which have been propounded. These are the establishment of courses for the newer types of school contemplated by the Act of 1918, particularly Nursery and Continuation Schools, special training schemes for Ex-Service men, and lastly recent developments in the direction of linking up Training Colleges to Universities.

Nursery School Teachers. The Nursery School movement has many of the characteristics of earlier movements, but is nevertheless a product of the present century. Opinions differ somewhat as to the justification for these schools. Some regard them as a means of improving the health, others merely as a better way of beginning the education of the nation's children, while viewed from a somewhat different standpoint they are a means of giving to the children of the poor some of the advantages enjoyed by the children of the well-to-do. There is general agreement, however, as to their essential features. They are to be nurseries first, schools afterwards; physical care and social training are their chief concern, mental training is only given indirectly. The ages of the children are from two to five or six.

So long ago as 1908 the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education recommended the establishment of schools of this type,[1] and in doing so were doubtless influenced by the success of the *Écoles maternelles* in France and of the Free Kindergartens in this country, as well as by the interest aroused in the physical

[1] *B. of E. Report on School Attendance of Children below the age of Five*, 1908.

condition of young children by the newly-established system of medical inspection. In spite of the Committee's recommendation the provision of these schools remained entirely a matter for private enterprise until the Education Act of 1918 empowered Local Education Authorities to supply or to aid the supply of Nursery Schools and Classes.[1] Regulations were issued by the Board of Education in January 1919,[2] and by the 31st March 1920 twenty-nine Nursery Schools had been recognized, only nine of which had existed prior to the Act.[3] Shortly afterwards the number decreased to twenty, rising again by 1921–22 to twenty-five, including nine maintained by Local Education Authorities. For a time the high cost of small Nursery Schools imperilled the movement, but this difficulty has been met by organizing Nursery Classes in Infant Schools at a cost no greater than a class of the ordinary kind. The preparation of teachers for the work, therefore, continues, and with an increasing appreciation of the importance of the pre-school years for the after-life of the child, both bodily and mental, we may look for the movement to grow steadily in the future.

A new type of school demanded a new type of teacher. The Board of Education regulations provided for three grades—Superintendents, with high and special qualifications as well as varied experience, able to act as nurse, matron, teacher, and organizer; Adult Assistants, partly nurses and partly teachers; and Probationers of sixteen to eighteen years of age desirous of being trained for the work. It was considered that one of each of these grades would be required for forty to fifty children.[4]

In many respects the special courses designed for Nursery School Teachers resemble those for the training of teachers for young children, and much of what was said in describing the latter is applicable here also. In fact, of the five institutions which now provide facilities for the training of teachers for Nursery Schools, four provide courses also for teachers in other types of schools; thus the Mather College at Manchester and Gipsy Hill College in London train also children of Junior Classes, while Darlington is an Elementary Training College for women,

[1] Education Act, 1918, Section 19.
[2] Education Act, 1918, *Grant Regulations*, No. 6.
[3] *B. of E. Report*, 1919–20, p. 11.
[4] *Regulations for Nursery Schools* (*Grant Regns.*, No. 6), par. 27.

which to its ordinary work has added a special one-year course for Nursery School Superintendents. One Training Institution only, the Rachel McMillan Centre at Deptford, confines itself to the preparation of students for work in Nursery Schools.

No detailed account of these institutions will be attempted, and the distinctive features of each may quickly be enumerated. The Mather College is a Municipal College with sixty students, some preparing to become teachers in Preparatory Departments of Secondary Schools, others taking a special course in preparation for work in Nursery Schools. Among the latter are one-year students already certificated, and with teaching experience, with the result that the age range of the students is very wide, usually from eighteen to thirty-five years or more. The College has two Demonstration Schools (one a Nursery School), the staffs of which are appointed by the Education Committee after consultation with the Principal of the College. The students are examined by a Committee which includes both members of the College staff and of the staff of Manchester University. Assessors of the Board of Education and of the National Froebel Union are also included, and successful candidates receive both the Board of Education Certificate and the National Froebel Union's Higher Certificate. In 1925 a College Diploma will be instituted, and the present arrangement with the National Froebel Union terminated. The most outstanding feature in the training of this College is the requirement that each of those preparing for Nursery Schools should spend three months in a babies' or children's hospital.

Gipsy Hill Training College is provided by a Voluntary Body, and accommodates upwards of sixty students, who, like those at the Mather College, are preparing for work in Junior and Nursery Schools. Until recently it had two Demonstration Schools, of which at the moment only the Nursery School remains open. Arrangements for examination are also on somewhat similar lines, the internal examiners being members of the College staff and the external examiners appointed by the Governors. The arrangement is approved by the Board of Education, who see also the College schemes of work, make grants to students who fulfil the necessary conditions, and issue to them, if successful, the Board of Education Certificate. The College also issues its

own Certificate. In this College students are trained in the principles and practice of the Montessori method, and in addition to their practical work in the school are expected to visit the homes of the children. Great emphasis is laid on the observation of individual children during the first part of the course, the study of psychology being postponed until data have been acquired in this way.

Darlington is one of the very few Elementary Training Colleges to provide a special one-year course for Trained Certificated Teachers who wish to take up work in Nursery Schools. The interesting feature about the course is that for their practical work students spend the whole of one term at a London Nursery School in addition to shorter periods spent in the George Dent Nursery School, Darlington, under the more immediate supervision of the College staff. The numbers following the special course are as yet but small.

The last of the institutions named above, the Rachel McMillan Training Centre at Deptford, is first and foremost a Nursery School, and only secondly an institution for training teachers. There are about thirty students and each begins by working in every section of the Nursery, becoming thoroughly familiar with practice before being introduced to theory. The full course extends over three years, but the Board of Education only approve the Centre for one year (either the first or second) of a two-year course : the other year being spent at an ordinary Training College, usually the Home and Colonial College at Wood Green or the London County Council College at Avery Hill. These one-year students form one-fourth to one-third of the whole number. Students from abroad and private students are also admitted for courses varying in length according to their previous experience, while a number of younger girls assist in the general domestic work of the School. There is, therefore, considerable variety in the age, attainments, and experience of the students. The school is a day school in a poor district, and is open from Monday to Friday each week, with the exception of a very short holiday period. Students in training do duty in the school from two to three hours each day in accordance with an arranged scheme of rotation, and lectures take place in the evenings and on Saturday mornings. Most of the lecturers in

the various subjects are visiting teachers, but the Principal is responsible for the instruction in Psychology. In connexion with her practical work in the Open Air Nursery School each student is required to keep records of individual children. She has also to help with parents' meetings and, under supervision, to pay visits to the homes of the children. Opportunities are afforded during the training course of observing and helping in the Minor Ailment and Dental Clinic.

Certain general characteristics of these institutions as, for example, freedom to frame their own curricula subject to the general approval of the Board of Education, with special arrangements for the examination of students, were among the features we noted in other institutions, particularly those relatively independent of the Central Authority. In the case of the Mather College we have an institution closely related to both Central and Local Authorities enjoying a similar freedom to develop on its own lines. This freedom is due, no doubt, to the pioneer character of the work in which the Colleges are engaged, and results in greater liberty for the students in the choice of subjects, the arrangement of their time-tables, and the many other matters which taken together make up the somewhat binding routine of the average Training College. The sprinkling of more mature students is a great help. Besides these general characteristics there are others which, though not confined to the newer courses of training, are more fully developed in them ; in the first place the training is intensely practical ; secondly, the study of psychological theory gives place to, or rather is based upon, a knowledge of children ; and thirdly, emphasis is placed upon practical acquaintance with the social conditions in which the child lives.

Each of these is of significance in connexion with the more general problems of teacher training. By the importance which they attach to practical experience with children, and as at the Deptford Centre in particular, by basing the training on the school, these Colleges are strengthening the movement in favour of a greater emphasis on this side of a teacher's preparation. By deferring the study of psychology until some knowledge of the child has been acquired, they are placing themselves in line with those who doubt the value for the teacher of an abstract study of text-book psychology, while by attempting to familiarize

students with the home life of their pupils they are helping to break down the isolation which has too long characterized the school and prevented it from exercising its full influence.

Continuation School Teachers. The Education Act of 1918 also rendered possible the provision by Local Education Authorities and other bodies of Day Continuation Schools,[1] some of which had already been established by employers. Other schools on a basis of voluntary attendance were opened during the next few years, and by March 1921 these numbered about fifty.[2] The establishment of new schools on a compulsory basis by Local Education Authorities was delayed until individual Authorities had been able to review the position, but by March 1921 the Board had been asked to fix the appointed day for the section of the Act introducing a system of further education in six areas. The London County Council opened upwards of twenty Day Continuation Schools on 9 January 1921, and by March there were in attendance some 14,446 pupils taught by 238 teachers, of whom 189 were engaged full time.[3] Since then plans for the extention of facilities for continued education have in some cases been abandoned and in others materially reduced, while schemes for the training of teachers are almost all in abeyance. Most of these were planned by existing institutions, especially the Training Departments of Universities: provision for similar courses was also made in two separate institutions in London.[4]

Like the courses for Nursery School Teachers those for teachers in Continuation Schools resembled existing courses up to a certain point. Almost all of them were one-year courses of purely professional training, including a study of Psychology, particularly of the adolescent, and a certain amount of practical training in teaching. Students were expected, as a rule, to make a special study of one subject, as was already required of those intending to teach in Secondary Schools, and in addition the curriculum included the study of social, economic, and industrial conditions—a study both theoretical and practical.

[1] Education Act, 1918, Section 3.

[2] *Hansard,* Answer in the House of Commons, 22 March 1921.

[3] *Hansard,* Answer in the House of Commons, 4 March 1921.

[4] *B. of E. Reports,* 1919–20, pp. 75–6; 1920–21, p. 56. In 1921–22 thirteen students entered upon and eleven completed a course of training. *Report,* p. 65.

Visits to factories, clubs, and recreation centres, courts of justice, classes and meetings of workers' organizations were among the means adopted for giving students a practical knowledge of the everyday life of their future pupils, and at several Universities the resources of the Training Department were supplemented by those of the Department of Social Study. Clearly courses of this description did not lend themselves so readily to the ordinary method of testing by formal written examinations, and a student's progress was usually determined by reference to record books, essays, and other written work done during the year. Finally, in the search for teachers no attempt was made to confine the selection to those who had passed through the normal course of preparation for any other type of school. It was realized that more was required than a mere teacher of subjects, that the turbulent adolescents who would come to these schools would need leaders and advisers as well as teachers, men and women able and ready to guide them in the task of relating knowledge to life. Provided the intellectual attainments of students were satisfactory, experience in industry or in other walks of life than teaching was regarded as a recommendation. In this and in certain other respects these courses were akin to those provided for Ex-Service men, which we may therefore pass on to consider.

Training of Ex-Service Students. Among the many plans adopted by the Ministry of Labour for restoring Ex-Service men to useful occupations in civil life was one which for a time attracted much attention—that for the training of selected men as teachers in Elementary Schools. The possibility of educational development in 1919 brought home forcibly the dearth of qualified teachers, and this seemed an excellent way of securing an additional supply, and at the same time providing a number of men with a means of livelihood. The first College was opened for the purpose at Sarisbury Court, near Southampton, and others followed later at Springfield (Birmingham), Erith, and Hornsey. From being at first merely a scheme to train a few men skilled in Handicraft to become teachers of the subject in Elementary and especially in Continuation Schools, the scope of the venture was widened to include the preparation of teachers for ordinary work in Elementary Schools, with, in most cases, special qualifications for the teaching of Handwork and Elemen-

tary Science. A certain number of students were also sent to the Training Colleges at Crewe, Chester, Exeter, and Westminster, to the Training Department at University College, Southampton, and to Loughborough Technical College. In each of these institutions suitable facilities for practical work could be provided. A few were sent to the Training Centre at Dundee, and in all 1,026 Ex-Service men have been trained under the scheme. Other Ex-Service students have passed through ordinary training courses with the aid of Board of Education grants, and a temporary Training College was opened at Lancaster, but we need not devote any attention to them here. Nor do we propose to describe at length the Ministry of Labour Colleges and their equipment. What we are now concerned with are the features of the experiment which differentiate it from the prevailing practice in teacher training.[1]

First among these we must place the method adopted for the selection of students. This was in the hands of representatives of the Ministry of Labour and of the Board of Education, together with representative Elementary Schoolmasters. Applications were invited from men who through disablement were unfit to return to their pre-war occupation, or who, though fit, had been interrupted in the preparation for their career. There was no lack of applicants, and it was possible to make a careful selection. For places in one College planned to accommodate 150 students there were about 500 applications, and of the total number applying under the scheme only about 10 per cent. were accepted. No written tests were imposed, but candidates were required to have a good groundwork of general knowledge, to be able to express themselves readily on suitable subjects, and to be alert and interested in general topics apart from their particular vocation. In addition to this they were expected to have a hobby involving practical work of an intelligent nature, and to have shown active interest in some form of educational or social activity prior to enlistment. Above all their personality had to be such as to give hope that with training they might become successful teachers. The ages of the

[1] For such details as have been published see *B. of E. Annual Reports*, 1918 to 1921; also article on 'An Experiment in Training' in *The Times Educational Supplement*, 22 October 1921.

men selected varied from nineteen or twenty to forty-five; the average age was somewhere about twenty-three.

Then as to the course. This has in each case been intensive, lasting twenty months, including about six weeks' holiday, and as far as possible equivalent to the ordinary Training College curriculum. It is officially described as including the Principles of Teaching, English, Mathematics, Science, and Drawing closely connected with Handwork, Geography, and History. An examination conducted by the College staff in conjunction with the Board of Education's Inspectorate terminated the course, and successful students rank as Trained Certificated Teachers eligible for superannuation. A number have been provisionally certificated and placed on probation, a procedure which should have provided the Board of Education with useful experience as to the value of this method of final testing prior to certification. The first batch of students from Sarisbury Court, 139 in number, finished their course in March 1922, and the last few groups completed their training in May, June, and July 1923.

The staffs of these Colleges were specially selected with the aid of Divisional Inspectors of the Board of Education, and all but a few of the older lecturers were men with teaching experience who saw service in H.M. Forces during the war, and so had much in common with the men under their charge. The distinctive characteristics of staff, students, and curriculum, together with the excellent facilities provided in the way of premises and equipment, and the easy financial circumstances of most of the students,[1] combined to make the training period rather different from that of the ordinary two-year student. Instead of youths fresh from Secondary Schools the students were men of years and experience; hence the supervision and arranging of many of the activities of the College could be and was very largely delegated to them. Particularly was this the case with the social side of college life, which, in these institutions was very strong owing to the much greater contribution which men of experience are able to make. In their studies and training too, the men's varied experience and wider outlook rendered possible, and indeed necessitated a modification of

[1] Each man was in receipt of allowances from the Ministry of Labour.

method on the part of their tutors, who introduced practical methods and invited the co-operation of students to an extent rarely found in the ordinary Training College. About one-third of the students' time was devoted to practical work, and this at Sarisbury Court in particular was regarded as a means not merely of providing the students with an additional and useful qualification, but also of introducing them to the principles which underlie industrial and mechanical processes, while for those with inclinations towards work in rural schools the study of Elementary Science was closely related to practical work in field and garden.

The men were keen and nowhere more than in the practical teaching which they had to do in the schools. Head Masters speak in the highest terms of their adaptability and enthusiasm as well as their capacity for work, and draw comparisons with the average Training College student not entirely favourable to the latter. This same keenness helped them over many difficulties, lightened the task of their tutors, and compensated for some of the disadvantages with which they had to contend. Habits of study had been lost, the ability to use books had to be acquired, and in many subjects a certain amount of forgotten groundwork had to be relaid. The length of the course, too, though not less in point of time than that of the ordinary two-year student, was yet insufficient to fill the gaps in the men's intellectual equipment, and the tutors, realizing this, aimed at enabling their pupils to grasp the underlying principles rather than the details of a subject. At the same time they were careful to note any special ability which men possessed, or experience which they had gained, in order to encourage specialization on the lines most congenial to the student. Local Education Authorities welcomed the first batch of students, and, when a full report of the experiment comes to be written, it is to be hoped that we shall be told something of the after-careers of these men. There is every reason to believe that they will make good.

The experiment has not met with universal approval. On the one hand Elementary Teachers have feared the lowering of the standard for the granting of the Board of Education Certificate, Teachers of Handicraft protested against the threatened output of specialists in their subject, fearing, like the Elementary

Teachers, a lowering of the standard, in this case of craftsmanship, while Training Colleges, faced with financial difficulties and a decline in the number of applicants for admission, protested vigorously against the competition of new colleges at so critical a time. The Board of Education assured the National Union of Teachers that the standard would not be seriously lowered, the training of the later batches of students was modified in the direction of fitting them to become ordinary teachers with a knowledge of practical subjects rather than specialist teachers of Handicraft, while small batches of Ex-Service students were sent into the Training Colleges named above. Finally it was decided to terminate the experiment when the students already accepted for training had finished their course.

Apart from the free and frankly experimental character of the whole scheme its significance is twofold. It represents the biggest attempt yet made to recruit the ranks of Certificated Teachers from among those who have not passed through any of the usual courses of preliminary preparation, while the courses followed by students have been less academic and more practical than any hitherto approved. Final judgement as to the result of the experiment must be reserved until a later date, but certain tentative conclusions may be drawn even now. First of all the soundness of the movement which has already begun in the direction of recruiting the profession from among those who have not been either Pupil Teachers, Bursars, or Student Teachers, is confirmed, and the arguments which we have adduced for the abolition of these earlier stages are strengthened. But on the other hand we may not infer that transference from other occupations to teaching provides an easy solution of the problem of the supply of teachers, and that the minimum amount of training is needed. Rather is it evident that the indispensable groundwork for professional training must in all cases be a sound education to secondary standard, and that, while men of varied experience who possess this can make a very special contribution to their work as schoolmasters, it is essential that the interval which elapses before the resumption of study should not be too prolonged, and that professional preparation should not be unduly hurried. And clearly there is no room for any lowering of the standard of qualification in order to admit them to the profession.

To the practical character of the courses little exception can be taken, but we may well remind ourselves of the distinction which we drew in Chapter VII between the use of practical work as a subject of instruction for older children and as a means to the better teaching of other subjects. The provision of the necessary facilities for the former involves considerable outlay and will only be made gradually. No very rapid increase in the demand for teachers is therefore likely to arise at present. On the other hand the introduction of practical methods in teaching is not attended by difficulties of the same kind, and an increase in the supply of teachers is the main condition of progress. It must always be remembered, however, that training on these lines is of little value unless preceded by a sound knowledge of the subject or subjects to be taught.

Finally, we have already intimated that a number of the students manifested during training an ambition to serve in a country school—an ambition which unfortunately remains in most cases unfulfilled. In October 1923 about 17 per cent. of them had not secured employment, and the majority of those who have obtained appointments are teaching in town schools. There are those who feel that the true solution of educational problems, particularly in rural areas, is to be found along lines which make the school a community centre, and for leading a movement of this kind men trained on the lines we have been considering would be eminently equipped. Certainly teachers with wider interests are better able to avoid the isolation in which too often they find themselves in a rural area, and by doing so they ensure a far greater appreciation of the value of their work to the community.

To sum up the results of these experiments we may say that each in a different way emphasizes the need for recruiting the profession more widely, illustrates the value of freedom and variety in courses of training, demonstrates the importance for the teacher of a knowledge of the home and social environment of his pupils, as well as of movements concerned with the out-of-school aspects of their life.

Training Colleges and Universities. The last of the developments which we have to consider is that which has for its object the establishing of a connexion between Training Colleges and Universities. Here again we have to deal not with a new move-

ment, but with a revival or extension of an earlier movement which had lost some of its impetus. Practically all Universities either at their foundation or at some subsequent period in their existence, have established connexions with various institutions for Higher Education. These range from incorporation down to mere friendly association, and, speaking generally, may be said to be of four main types. An institution may, (1) on the foundation of the University, become one of its constituent colleges, or (2) it may be adopted, or at a later date established, as a School of the University. On a different footing we have (3) institutions of which some of the teachers and of the courses are recognized as suitable for students preparing for certain University examinations, and finally, (4) there is the still looser connexion whereby the University, through some inspecting or examining body, exercises more or less supervision over the courses of study and the attainments of students in schools or colleges which have come to an arrangement with it for the purpose. Membership of institutions of the first two groups is as a general rule equivalent to membership of the University. Students at institutions of the third type, provided they satisfy specified conditions as to residence and examination, are usually excused a portion of the period of residence required by the University from degree students. The term affiliation is commonly applied to institutions in this group, and it will be advisable to avoid using it in any other sense. The fourth type of connexion confers no advantage of this kind, but is valuable because tending on the whole to raise the standard and give a wider conception of the work of the institution concerned. There are, it should be added, other ways in which association with a University may and does take place, but they cannot be so readily summarized and bear less directly upon the particular development which we are discussing.

Institutions for the professional training of teachers are to be found in each of these categories with the exception of the first, and occasional references have already been made in previous chapters to connexions which exist in the case of particular colleges. It may be useful, however, to show in summary form the extent to which relations between Training Colleges and Universities have been developed, particularly as progress in this direction is advocated in most of the schemes which are now put forward for the reform of our training system.

A. Schools or Departments of Universities

To this group belong the Training Departments of Universities and University Colleges. For a list see Appendix B, page 399.

B. Institutions with recognized Teachers and Courses

Name of College.	*Type.*	*University.*	*Notes.*
Maria Grey Training College	Secondary Training College for Women	London	Recognized Teachers
St. Mary's College, Lancaster Gate	,,	,,	,,
Goldsmiths' College	Elementary Training College for men and women	,,	,,
Isleworth, Borough Road Training College	Elementary Training College for men	,,	,,
St. John's College, Battersea	,,	,,	,,
St. Mark's College, Chelsea		,,	,,
St. Charles's R. C. Training College, Kensington	Elementary Training College for women	,,	See Note 1
Edge Hill Training College	,,	Liverpool	Recognized Teachers
Mount Pleasant R. C. Training College	,,	,,	,,
Saltley Training College	Elementary Training College for men	Birmingham	1st year's course accepted towards residence for a degree
York Training College	,,	Leeds	,,
Leeds Council Training College	Elementary Training College for men and women	Leeds	Hall of Residence with Recognized Teachers
Bede Training College	Elementary Training College for men	Durham	Recognized as a Hall of Residence for the University
St. Hild's	Elementary Training College for women	,,	See Note 2
St. Mary's R. C., Newcastle-on-Tyne	,,	,,	See Note 3
Salford R. C. Training College	,,	Manchester	,,

[1] Four-year course: three years attendance at Bedford College, one year professional training at St. Charles's.

[2] Will be recognized as Hall of Residence for the University when certain conditions are fulfilled.

[3] Four-year course: three years attendance at University, one year professional training at the College.

C. Institutions having other connexions with Universities.

Name of College.	*Type.*	*University.*	*Notes.*
Chester	Elementary Training College for men	Liverpool	Joint Board for Final Examination
Warrington	Elementary Training College for women	,,	,,
Edge Hill	,,	,,	,,

By far the greater number of the connexions shown in Group B above are of comparatively recent date. We may mention also attempts which have been made to establish a connexion between Culham Training College and Oxford University, and a closer relationship between Chester Training College and Liverpool University, in both cases on lines somewhat similar to those adopted for other Colleges. The renewed impetus of which these are the outward sign is mainly due to the establishment by the Board of Education of the Four-Year Course which we have already described. This appeals to the more ambitious students, and, being essentially a degree course succeeded by a year of professional training, can only be followed in a University Training Department or in a College closely connected with a University. Training Colleges which in the past encouraged their students to take the combined Three-Year Course in preparation for an external degree have naturally been disinclined to confine themselves to two-year students, and where possible have sought to overcome the difficulty by linking up with a University. It will be noticed that all the Colleges in Group B are situated in or near University towns, while none of those in Group C are very far distant. It will doubtless be noticed, too, that certain Colleges situated in University towns do not appear, and in some cases there is no association, however informal, between them and the University. The fact is that developments in this direction have hitherto depended largely upon the views and the initiative of the authorities responsible for individual Colleges, and until recent years no considered attempt has been made to determine the principles which should guide the reform of our training system.

It is important not to over-estimate the extent of these developments. In the above summary we intentionally omitted

any reference to Colleges which prepare students for the external degrees of London University, but of which none of the staff are recognized teachers of the University, and no co-operation for purposes of examination and teaching takes place. A connexion of this kind cannot be regarded as falling within the scope of the development we are now describing, but even were these institutions taken into account, the proportion of students who sat for a degree examination of any kind (internal or external) in the two years 1920–1 barely reached ten per cent. of the whole number, and this proportion is considerably reduced if only those students are included whose association with the University was in any sense personal and effective. Figures for the Elementary Training Colleges in Group B show that the number of four-year students in any individual College is small, ranging from 5 to 10 per cent. ; only in exceptional cases does it approach 25 per cent. of the total number of students in residence. Moreover, were all the students in these Colleges to become either four-year or post-graduate students, about half of the total number of students in training would still remain unconnected with any University. Clearly, therefore, there is room for development along these lines : whether a development of this kind is desirable is a question which we shall shortly consider.

Suggested Developments. We must pass on now to consider schemes for reform which have been put forward in recent years, and will first of all examine proposals which involve improvement rather than radical change of the present system. Among these we may place the suggestions running through a Paper read at the Bangor Conference of Training College Principals and Lecturers by Miss Mercier, Principal of Whitelands College,[1] suggestions which command a considerable amount of support from those of long experience in the training of teachers for Elementary Schools. Briefly the paper was a plea for the continuance of the present two-year combined course for some teachers of young children, side by side with a University course followed by a period of professional training for others, and also for teachers contemplating work with older scholars. Miss Mercier considered that a University degree course for all would

[1] *The Journal of Experimental Pedagogy and Training College Record,* Double Number, June and December 1922, pp. 319–25.

in its turn bring uniformity and stagnation, and that, among those who are naturally endowed for the teaching of young children, there are minds which develop best under a vocational course infused with a single interest, and inspiring those who follow it with a high professional spirit. A course of this kind could, she felt, be developed in existing Training Colleges, and it is interesting to find that in order to make this course the instrument which she would wish it to be Miss Mercier would welcome closer relations between Universities and Training Colleges. This relation, however, should not be one of subordination but of co-operation, a co-operation initiated in the first place by the Training Colleges and affecting all their educational work. Moreover, she would allow freedom to Colleges to link up with whatever University or University College they might choose, in order to avoid as far as possible any further localizing of the system. Administrative control would remain, as at present, with the Board of Education and the Training College Authorities. For the post-graduate period of professional training, to be followed by four-year students, Miss Mercier suggested a course primarily for the acquisition of experience of a reasonably varied character, terminated by some form of test other than a written examination reminiscent of undergraduate days.

With the portion of Miss Mercier's scheme which concerns the relation of Training Colleges to Universities we may very well compare suggestions for linking up these institutions which emanate from others, who, while contemplating the continuance of Training Colleges for two-year students, consider that they would gain by being associated with Universities, rather than with the Board of Education, for purposes of framing curricula and conducting examinations. In June 1921 the Senate of London University approved a report containing a draft scheme for the improvement of Training Colleges through connexion with the University.[1] The plan suggested is practically that which we have seen in operation in connexion with the group of Colleges associated with Liverpool University, and dating from 1919. It is suggested that the University might institute a Training College Committee which would be an independent Committee appointed by the Senate annually and reporting

[1] Report of a Senate Meeting of the University of London, 22 June 1921.

directly to it. It would consist of members of the University Senate, of the relevant Boards of Studies for the subjects studied in Training Colleges, and of the Training Colleges themselves. Representatives of the Board of Education would also be invited from time to time to attend meetings of the Committee. Further, it is suggested that such a Committee might establish a new examination with a standard higher than that of the present School Examination, but not so high as that of a University Degree Examination, and conduct the same by a method less 'external' than the method of conducting School Examinations, and less 'internal' (in view of the fact that few teachers of Training Colleges are at the present time recognized teachers of the University), than the method of conducting the usual University Examinations.

Application for admission to this scheme would be made by individual Training Colleges, and inspection, approval of syllabuses, and recognition of teachers, would be necessary functions to be discharged by the Training College Committee. The privilege of sitting for the special University Certificate or Diploma would be confined to students from recognized Training Colleges. It was suggested that the cost of such a scheme might be met by contributions from the Training Colleges concerned.

On the whole the two schemes very fairly represent the attitude of Training Colleges and Universities to this question of co-operation. Training College Staffs, or at least the more progressive of them, have for some time been making good use of the freedom which it is possible to enjoy under the regulations of the Board of Education, and are not prepared to sacrifice their newly-won independence to another outside body, even though that body be a University Committee. They consider that the association must be one of free co-operation rather than subordination, such as will allow each College power to work out its own courses and share in the examination of its students. Two-year Colleges in particular question the competence of Universities to test the most important part of their work—the professional training of students. Universities, on the other hand, question the competence of Training College Staffs to take so prominent a share in guiding and testing the academic studies of their pupils, and condition their co-operation by certain

requirements as to the qualifications of those members of the staff who are to be associated with their own representatives in this work.

There is reason on either side. The reluctance of Universities to recognize too freely the staffs of Colleges may be justified by reference to the qualifications of the latter, while on the other hand the claims of teachers of good qualifications and experience to a voice in framing the curricula and testing the abilities of their pupils is equally justifiable. *Solvitur ambulando.* The greater scope which would be allowed to teachers in Training Colleges under a wisely-planned scheme of co-operation would render the work more attractive to men and women of high qualifications and wide experience. A wider sphere of influence would be opened to University teachers of general subjects, while the co-operation of the staffs of University Education Departments with the staffs of Training Colleges in connexion with the professional part of the course would foster a wholesome intercourse and interchange between them, and would make the position of professors and teachers in University Training Departments among the most responsible and desirable in the whole system of teacher training.

Proposals which have been put forward by representative bodies of teachers involve more drastic changes. Of these perhaps the most detailed are those of the National Union of Teachers. These were formulated by the Executive, and approved at the Annual Conference in 1920, but since that date have been modified in certain respects. In them the course of training is regarded as divisible into three stages: (1) general education, (2) the degree course, and (3) professional training. It is laid down that the general education of the intending teacher shall be a full time and completed Secondary School Course, and that the degree course shall be followed in a University or University College in association with students entering other professions, and shall normally last for three years. Finally, it is proposed that the period of professional training (of one year's duration as a rule) shall be devoted to the acquisition of teaching craftsmanship, as part of the preparation for a University diploma in the theory and practice of teaching. The scheme further suggests that existing Training Colleges should be utilized for this purpose alone, receiving students proposing

to become teachers of special as well as of general subjects. Lectures in educational theory and school practice in suitable demonstration schools should be closely connected, and research should be carried out by the College staff and students. Colleges for professional training should be recognized as Colleges of a University, and on completion of the whole course of training the teacher should be eligible for admission to the official Register of Teachers, and for recognition by the Board of Education for service in any approved school.[1]

Very similar to this scheme in many ways are the suggestions contained in recommendations adopted at the Annual Conference (May 1922) of the National Association of Head Teachers, many members of which are also members of the larger Union. Two additional and interesting recommendations which they make may be mentioned : the first being to the effect that ' Candidates should be selected by a general Committee consisting of equal numbers of Heads of Primary Schools, Heads of Secondary Schools, including if possible the Head of the School at which the candidate has been educated, and members and officials of the Administrative Authority ', while the second proposes that ' the Final Examination for the Teachers' Certificate should be placed under the control of the Teachers Registration Council, and that this Certificate should be an essential qualification for service in a recognized school '.[2]

Both recommendations emphasize points to which we have already made some reference. In discussing the question of scholarships for intending teachers we welcomed the introduction of oral tests, and of selection committees which included Elementary and Secondary Teachers, while we have already referred several times to the defects of a system which leaves the determination of the standard of attainment to be required of the Elementary Teacher in the hands of the Central Authority. The suggested alternative, however, seems to imply that the Teachers Registration Council should assume some of the functions of an

[1] Report of Conference, Easter 1920, Form Ed. 5, 1920. Issued by the N.U.T. Also, Memorandum of evidence given on behalf of the N.U.T. before the Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers. *Schoolmaster*, 17 Aug. 1923.

[2] Conference Agenda and Report. The scheme also appeared in the *Schoolmaster* for 12 November 1921, p. 739.

examining body, a step which appears to be neither necessary nor desirable. Here the National Union of Teachers' scheme is to be preferred, for under it the testing of students' general and professional attainments would be the duty of the University, though it would be open to the Teachers Registration Council, then as now, to refuse to recognize a particular qualification for purposes of registration.

With the proposals put forward by representatives of the teaching profession may be compared suggestions for reform recently made by the Advisory Committee on Education of the Labour Party. Here again it is insisted that the general education of the teacher should take place in Secondary School and University, and that strictly professional training should be post-graduate and of a very practical character. What is of particular interest to us at the moment is that an attempt is made to indicate more clearly the general principles which should guide the Universities in the task of educating and training teachers. It is suggested that Faculties of Education should be set up, comparable to the other faculties and providing a course of study adapted to the special needs of intending teachers. Such a course should not be stereotyped and narrow, should not be so much a single course as a series of alternative and co-ordinated courses by lecturers drawn from existing faculties and presenting a broad, rather than an intensive view of human achievement. For at least one, and perhaps for two years the student should be attached to one of the existing faculties and become to this extent a specialist ; for the remainder of his course he should devote his time to a more general study of men and things. Psychology, Anatomy, Physiology, being semi-technical subjects, should be somewhere introduced ; many, perhaps the majority, of intending teachers might give them an intensive and prolonged attention. Music and Art might also find a place in the curriculum.

It is not suggested that the same course should be imposed on all students preparing to enter the profession, though it is thought to be important that the Faculty of Education, when formed, should have sufficient prestige to attract an adequate number of students.[1]

[1] *The Education and Training of Teachers*. Ed. by G. S. M. Ellis. Published by the Trades Union Congress and the Labour Party, 1922.

The development thus outlined finds a number of advocates among those responsible for teacher training, particularly in Universities, and the main arguments in its favour are succinctly stated in the following extract from a criticism of the existing Four-Year Course by a lecturer of long and varied experience.

'The theoretical training of a teacher, whether in the subjects he is going to teach or in the psychological principles he is going to apply in teaching, should be unified. The theoretical study of Education is as important as Chemistry or History. Moreover, there ought not to be such a division between "academic" and "professional" studies, either in time or in extent. The history of Education is a part of the history of civilization; Psychology is a study of human nature: neither can be superfluous to any teacher. Further, a scientist should have acquaintance with literature and an arts man with scientific method, if he is to become a wise teacher, and his academic course should be chosen not for a "subject" but for a career. Essentially, therefore, I look to a Faculty of Education as a solution of the theoretical problem, where the Teacher's degree will certify professional knowledge as well as knowledge of subjects that are taught in schools. This would abolish the Teacher's Certificate as a separate examination and award the degree and its class on the whole of the student's work.'

An adequate discussion of the merits and demerits of a University course, modified in accordance with these principles, would necessitate a fuller consideration of the character and purpose of University education in general than we should be justified in attempting in this place. Clearly, very much depends upon the range of subjects within which the intending teacher might exercise his selection, and until this is known no very useful criticism of the suggestion can be made. An enlarging of the range and scope of University studies would have the effect, no doubt, of reducing the number for whom a degree course was unsuitable, but it would be unfortunate if any particular combination of subjects became obligatory for those intending to teach. Arrangements of such a character would but reintroduce that very uniformity which has been one of the defects of training in the past, and would differentiate and tend to separate intending teachers from their fellow students.

The experience of Scotland in the past is suggestive in this connexion. Shortly after their institution in 1905, Provincial

Committees for the Training of Teachers drew up regulations as to the course of general study to be followed by King's Students who wished to take a University Degree.[1] These definitely prescribed certain subjects, and limited the choice of optional subjects in such a way that in practice most students attended the same University classes. Thus it came about that 'teacher students, by the largeness of their number, the fixity of their subjects, the dovetailing of practical training into their course of University study, formed a solid phalanx marching from one class-room to another, neither mingling with nor influenced by the general body of students . . . a misfortune in every way, as it deprived them of that liberalizing of mind and outlook which the other students (aiming at various callings and pursuing various courses of study) receive mainly by their abundant opportunities of intercourse with each other'.[2] These conditions no longer prevail to the same extent in Scotland, and we in this country shall do well to avoid their introduction.

The last of the suggestions for reform which we propose to discuss are those put forward on several occasions by Mr. Frank Roscoe, the Secretary of the Teachers Registration Council.[3] Like many others Mr. Roscoe disapproves entirely of the segregation of teachers and the attempt to combine professional training with general studies, and considers that the training in teaching offered in Training Colleges and Departments has suffered in the past from lack of facilities for adequate practice under skilled supervision. For each teacher, therefore, he suggests an academic course of University standard followed by a period of professional training in selected schools, after which he should be recognized as qualified for ordinary school work. For those who wish to pass on to posts of greater responsibility Mr. Roscoe would suggest a course in a University Department of Education. Teachers who had passed through this further period of study should be regarded as qualified for service as head of an ordinary school, on the staff of a training school, as administrators or inspectors. The Two-Year Training Colleges of to-day would be eliminated

[1] See p. 108.

[2] Quoted from a memorandum prepared in 1907 by the then Adviser of Studies in Arts, University of Glasgow.

[3] e. g. at an Educational Conference at Portsmouth in March 1922. Report in *The Times Educational Supplement*, 8 April 1922.

as such ; the Universities would be called upon to provide for the general education of a larger number of students, and to develop Departments of Education with the staff and the facilities to carry on work akin to that of other Departments of post-graduate standing.

The striking feature of Mr. Roscoe's suggestion and that which differentiates it from all others hitherto propounded is that the period of professional training which immediately follows graduation should be entirely devoted to the acquisition of experience in selected training schools, and that a study of the more theoretical aspects of Education should be deferred to a later stage and not necessarily be compulsory for all. Here we have a practical instance of that reaction against the prevailing type of post-graduate course which exists in various quarters, and which is being met to a considerable extent by the modifications which have been made in a number of University Training Departments. We are reminded, too, of the attempts which have been made on a small scale to provide a year of post-graduate training of this kind in Secondary Schools. The general introduction of the scheme would present certain obvious difficulties, not the least being the provision of the large number of training schools which would presumably be needed for the use of the six thousand or more intending teachers who would complete their University course each year. These schools would have to be carefully selected from the point of view of geographical distribution, suitably equipped and staffed, and of sufficient variety to provide for the training of teachers of all types. Arrangements would have to be made for the supervision of practical training in the schools, and for ascertaining and certifying its successful completion. These problems, though new and by no means simple, would not be incapable of solution ; but perhaps the most serious objection to the plan is that, owing to the optional character of the later period of further study, large numbers of teachers would not necessarily come into contact at any time in their career with any of those whose duty it is to make a study of education from the theoretical and the scientific standpoint. For his task the teacher requires more than a knowledge of teaching method, class management, and school organization, valuable though such knowledge undoubtedly

is. Without principles, aims, and ideals, his teaching will be lacking in purpose and in power. He needs principles to guide him in meeting changing conditions, aims to direct his efforts towards wisely chosen ends, and ideals to enable him to persevere in spite of difficulties. We may and do admit that, under present conditions, the first ten years after the training course may bring progressive disillusionment, but this is largely due to the teacher's isolation and to the conditions under which he so often works. If only we can help him to avoid the former and can improve the latter, as well as enable him to renew his ideas and ideals by means of Refresher Courses, he will be the more likely to retain the vigour and the freshness of his teaching, and strengthen and extend his influence.

As a suggestion for the rearrangement of a post-graduate training course the scheme has considerable significance. Whether it would be better to arrange for the first part of the year to be spent in the schools under normal conditions, and the later part in study and teaching practice under guidance, is an interesting question, and a few experiments on these lines would be particularly helpful. Whatever arrangement is adopted it is important to secure that the student's earliest introduction to school, whether at an earlier testing period or at a later stage, should be made under skilled and sympathetic guidance as well as favourable conditions.

The distinction which is drawn in Mr. Roscoe's scheme between the advanced study of education and courses of more specifically professional and practical training has much to recommend it, and is coming to be increasingly felt by the Heads of Training Departments. As to the need for better equipped University Departments of Education there is general agreement. At present most of the energies of the staffs of Training Departments are absorbed in directing the training of teachers of various types, and it is difficult for them to find time to devote to research or to the guidance of advanced students. The demand for advanced courses has been partially met by the establishment of superior degrees in Education at London (M.A.), Manchester and Leeds (M.Ed.), and more recently by the institution of a Diploma in Education at Cambridge in addition to the Teacher's Certificate of which we have already given

some account.[1] Oxford uses its research degrees, and other Universities their Diploma Courses, for the same purpose. At Birmingham University, for example, during the past session there were no less than twenty students, teachers in all types of school and lecturers in Training Colleges, pursuing courses of advanced study under the guidance of the Professor of Education. In the past the newer Universities have shown a greater appreciation of the value of a more advanced study of Education than have the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and in England as a whole there has hitherto been less adequate provision for research in this field than in most others. It is beyond the scope of this inquiry to enter into details as to what facilities are needed; but the effect which fuller investigation and research would have upon every aspect of educational activity—teaching, organization, administration—as well as the light which would be shed upon the sociological bearings of educational problems would be inestimable.

General Considerations. We are now in a position to examine the schemes summarized above from a more general standpoint. In one respect, at least, they are in agreement : in each case the only satisfactory arrangement for preliminary education is considered to be a complete Secondary education terminated by an examination of matriculation standard. The need for such a raising of the standard has already been sufficiently emphasized, and it is unnecessary to dwell further on it here.

For the next step there is sometimes suggested a testing period of from three to six months, but the question is one upon which there are wide differences of opinion. On the analogy of other professions a preliminary test should no doubt be uncalled for, but in them the individual bears the cost of preparation and takes all the risks. Until this is true also of the teaching profession a preliminary elimination of the unfit seems a desirable and indeed a necessary precaution. Again, under a reorganized system in which such a test might be interposed between a completed general education and a subsequent period of purely professional training no real interruption of studies would occur, nor

[1] The course for the Teacher's Certificate forms Part I of the Diploma Course. Part II consists of a thesis on some topic in the Theory, History, and Practice of Education, and is confined to Cambridge Honours graduates.

could the student be regarded as prematurely 'predestinated' to the profession of a teacher. Finally, although a short period of testing may be insufficient to determine ultimate capacity, it is difficult to believe that under suitable conditions some estimate could not be arrived at within the period suggested. Certainly the opportunity which a preliminary testing period affords of preventing young people from entering the profession without any knowledge of the work before them, and the possibility which it provides of saving the schools from becoming the dumping ground of the incompetent, seem to outweigh any disadvantages and difficulties which it may present.[1] We may note too, in passing, that the special Committee which is now engaged in considering the curricula of Training Centres and Colleges in Scotland has pronounced in favour of such a test.

About the final stage of preparation there is greater divergence of opinion, though it is significant that in varying degrees all the above schemes contemplate more active participation in teacher training by the Universities. Among the points at issue would seem to be the stage at which vocational training should commence, and the form which it should take. Those who advocate a continuance of the two-year training course for some teachers stipulate for a higher standard of entrance, and upon the basis of a completed Secondary education would place a course of theory and practice closely combined, and preparing definitely for work with younger children. At the other extreme are those who would defer all professional training until one or other of the customary degree courses has been completed; while in an intermediate position are the advocates of a vocational degree course, if we may coin a phrase, who, while deferring practical training until a later stage, would yet include in the early part of the course some consideration of the theoretical aspects of education.

No course of preparation can be considered apart from the character of the work for which it prepares, and the question arises as to how far any of these arrangements would meet the needs of the schools. It is generally agreed that normal children of eleven years of age and upwards may and should come

[1] For a scheme of probation in Cambridgeshire see Appendix A, pp. 395–6. See also *Education in Carnarvonshire*. Report by J. C. Smith, 1911, pp. 67–70.

increasingly under the guidance of teachers who have carried their studies in one or more subjects to a relatively high standard, preferably equivalent to that of an Honours Degree. To make so desirable an arrangement possible some modification of the existing school system would be necessary, and were this modification to take place it is evident that the differentiation which even now exists between the preparation of teachers for younger children and those for children over the age of eleven would be more than ever a necessity. From the point of view of the future efficiency of our educational system, therefore, those schemes seem the most promising which permit of a shorter vocational course for the former and a longer course of study and training as specialist teachers for the latter. Such a differentiation would be possible under the arrangement suggested by Miss Mercier, and presumably also, to some extent, under the scheme outlined by the Advisory Committee of the Labour Party. In practice this would probably mean that the more vocational type of course would be followed chiefly, if not solely, by women, while specialist courses would be followed mainly, though not by any means exclusively, by men—by all in fact to whom the teaching of older children made the greater appeal.

No one who hopes for a steadily rising standard of education or gives a backward glance at the improvement which has taken place since 1870 in the qualifications of teachers, can regard the idea of a University education for all teachers as chimerical, and as an ultimate objective it may very well be adopted, with the great advantage that modifications of existing arrangements might be made to lead steadily forward to a more reasonable and unified system. But for the present there are real difficulties. Principals and lecturers of experience in Elementary Training Colleges point out that barely 10 per cent. of the students in training could profitably follow a degree course; and though prepared to admit that insistence on higher entrance qualifications would increase this percentage, they maintain that there would still be a high proportion, of women teachers in particular, who would be unable to pursue a University course and yet would be eminently fitted to become teachers of younger children. Doubtless these objections would be partially met by an increase in the range and variety of University courses of study and

training, but there would still remain the problem of the supply of teachers to be faced. For this reason alone no sudden introduction of an ideal system would be practicable, though some advance towards it may profitably be made.[1] Only as the standard of education and efficiency required of the nation's teachers rises will the standard of education of the people rise also, and only as the latter rises in its turn will the supply of teachers become adequate and a further step forward be possible. Educational systems, like political, must either develop or decay ; development, which is a sign of life, must here begin with the teacher.

One further question arises in connexion with these suggestions for the future, namely, the position of existing Training Colleges. The above schemes, with but one exception, make provision for retaining them and utilizing them as centres for professional training; in the first scheme they would co-operate with Universities in framing courses of study and conducting examinations, in the others they would be associated even more closely with Universities as post-graduate professional schools. Many of the criticisms to which the Training College is subjected are due to its isolation and to the immaturity of its students : association with the University would tend to remove the former, and the entry of students at a later age would, as we saw in the case of the Ministry of Labour Training Colleges, necessitate much greater elasticity in the general arrangements for supervision and instruction. Whether, when the Training College became a place of purely professional training, the continuance of each of the existing Colleges could be justified is open to question : it would be necessary to show that adequate facilities were available in each case for the practical training of students in teaching, a training which would presumably be more extended and thorough than it can be to-day. It is conceivable also that some specialization of these institutions might be both desirable and necessary in order to enable them to make the best possible use of the facilities which could most readily be obtained. Some Colleges, for example, would be in a better position for the practical training of teachers for nursery or infant schools, others for the training of specialist teachers of older children. Problems

[1] Cf. pp. 386–91.

such as these would be readily solved if and when the purpose of Training Colleges had been more clearly defined.

To dispense with Training Colleges would necessitate the adoption of one or other alternatives: either the practical training of students would have to be organized from and by the University through its Department of Education, or, as was suggested in the last of the schemes which we examined, this work might be done by selected schools. To secure adequate supervision under the former arrangement would necessitate too great a concentration of students in a limited number of schools, proportionately reducing the value of the training in teaching, while the very real difficulties encountered in finding schools where the student can be given other than a purely empirical training, and that a perfunctory one, does not augur well for an application of the second method of securing practical training on a scale large enough to provide for all teachers. Some means must be provided of assisting the student in his endeavours to relate practice to theory, and it seems the wiser course and the more practicable to regard Training Colleges as the intermediaries for this purpose between the Universities and the schools, a double association which should improve the quality of the staffs of Training Colleges and promote a much-needed interchange between them and the institutions with which they would then be connected.

Schemes for the future involve also a consideration of the adequacy or otherwise of existing provision for professional training. Two of those which provide for the continuance of Training Colleges propose to restrict them to the purely professional preparation of teachers, and to reduce the time spent in them to one year. At first sight it would appear as though by this means the annual output of these institutions would be doubled, but it should be remembered that the more practical character of the training would necessitate extended facilities for teaching practice which might not always be obtainable in connexion with a given College and for so many additional students. Nevertheless, even allowing for this difficulty the numbers for which accommodation and practice facilities under supervision would be available under the suggested arrangement would undoubtedly be very greatly increased.

The pressure on Training College accommodation would also be relieved if a Two-Year Course were continued for some students, especially women, while the remainder passed through a longer period of study at the University prior to a course of practical training. Indeed, under none of the schemes which we have discussed would there seem to be any need for a large capital outlay in this quarter until the number of teachers to be provided for has considerably increased.

The main expansion would be called for in Universities and University Colleges: buildings, hostel accommodation, and particularly staffs would have to be extended in order to deal with the larger number of students. But, given the initial organization, such increases are neither so difficult nor so expensive as the setting up of a number of separate institutions, and, what is an even more important consideration, money invested in providing increased facilities for University education would be a benefit to the whole community rather than to a particular section.

Questions of cost also arise. If we ignore the difference which exists between the average annual cost per student in a Training College and in one of the newer Universities, a difference which would largely disappear were Training Colleges as efficiently equipped and staffed as they should be, we see that the financial problems which are involved in a consideration of the above schemes centre mainly around the duration of the course, the number of students to be provided for, and the extent to which the cost of training should be borne by public funds. Upon the first of these will depend the total amount to be expended upon each student, and upon the second the total annual cost for all students. Thus three of the schemes suggest a full University Course, presumably three years, for the intending teacher, involving an increase of 50 per cent. over and above the present total cost of a Two-Year Course. A year of post-graduate professional training is to follow; if this takes place in a Training College the total cost per student as compared with the Two-Year System is doubled; if professional training takes place in the schools a further increase will presumably also be necessary, the extent of which will depend so entirely on the character of the arrangements made that it can hardly be estimated. So, too,

though the first scheme presupposes the retention of the existing Two-Year College Course for some teachers, there would still be an addition to the total amount expended in respect of the remainder. In each case the justification of the increased cost must necessarily be looked for in the nature of the product.

It is, however, to the total annual expenditure from public funds that attention is usually and very naturally directed. This depends to a very great extent upon the number of students to be provided for, and the latter in turn depends upon the standards of staffing adopted by the community, as well as on the expansion of the school system. Finally, each of the suggestions for reform which we have outlined presupposes the provision of financial assistance to intending teachers on something like the present basis, and though we deprecate any arrangement whereby teachers as a class are differentiated from other students in respect of their general education, it is difficult to see how any very radical changes can be made until facilities for higher education are more generally accessible, and the present state of uncertainty with regard to remuneration has been removed. And even were such changes to be made it is not suggested that a curtailment of the special financial advantages enjoyed by intending teachers, as such, would necessarily mean a reduction in net expenditure on education, but rather that a wiser application might be made of public funds.

To-day we are expending about £2,000,000 per annum on the training of teachers, and it is incumbent therefore upon all who are genuinely interested in the efficiency of our educational system to ask whether this amount is being used to the best possible advantage. The examination to which we have subjected existing arrangements will, we trust, provide a partial answer to this question; all that remains for us to do is to summarize the main conclusions at which we have arrived in the course of our inquiry, and to indicate in what directions the existing system might profitably be modified.[1]

[1] In connexion with the projects for reform discussed in this chapter it is important to note that 66 per cent. of the children on the registers of the Public Elementary Schools of England and Wales on 31 March 1920 were under the age of 11, and that almost three-fifths of the teachers in those schools were engaged in their instruction. About 10 per cent. of the full-time pupils in Secondary Schools were also below the age of 11.

XV

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLINE OF A REFORMED SYSTEM

I. *Historical Development.* (Ch. I.)

The earliest systematic provision for teacher training originated in connexion with Elementary Schools, and so far as Elementary Teachers are concerned reforms have been directed towards the breaking of the closed circle represented by the Pupil Teacher System and the Residential Training College. Successive steps in this direction, as, for example, the education of intending teachers in Secondary Schools and the establishment of University Day Training Colleges, have resulted in compromise, and to-day the earlier system exists side by side with subsequent modifications. Secondary Training Colleges arose later in order to prepare teachers for the newly-established Girls' Secondary Schools; separate institutions for men met with inadequate support, but training courses were provided by Universities and University Colleges. Part-time methods of preliminary preparation were soon abandoned, and professional training was deferred until the student had completed a course of study in Secondary School or University, an arrangement free from some of the more obvious defects of the Elementary Teacher's preparation.

II. *Preliminary Education.* (Chs. II and III.)

(i) The preliminary education of the Elementary Teacher takes place as a general rule under either the Bursar-Student-Teacher system, or under one of the alternative forms of Pupil Teachership. Each involves a division of time between Elementary and Secondary School. The Student Teacher year and the system of Two-Year Pupil Teachership, in practice, cause a serious break in general education. The disadvantages experienced by Rural Pupil Teachers are even greater. No break occurs in the preliminary education of Secondary Teachers.

(ii) The most satisfactory form of preliminary education for

Elementary Teachers appears to be a completed Secondary School course terminated by an examination of matriculation standard. A preliminary test of a candidate's fitness for the profession is desirable, but for this purpose a short period (e. g. three to six months) of full time teaching experience in a selected school would be sufficient, and the decision as to a candidate's suitability for the profession should rest with a small committee representative of Elementary and Secondary Teachers and of the Local Education Authority.

(iii) To ensure adequate provision for the preliminary education of teachers, as well as on other grounds, improved facilities for Secondary education are needed. Pending the provision of these the common practice of ear-marking scholarships for intending teachers should be abandoned, as it results in a lowering of the standard for admission, and attracts unsuitable candidates into the teaching profession. Scholarships now restricted to intending teachers should be open to all children irrespective of their future occupation.

(iv) An examination of arrangements for the preliminary education of teachers in Scotland strengthens these conclusions.

III. *Professional Training of Elementary Teachers.* (Chs. II, IV, and V.)

(i) Most Elementary Teachers follow a Two-Year Course characterized throughout by low standards. The standard required for entrance should be higher, the level of instruction should be raised by improving still further the qualifications of Training College Staffs, and establishing a connexion between these institutions and Universities. Particularly desirable is a higher standard in the Final Examination conducted by the Board of Education upon the result of which Certificates are granted. Under a reformed system the standard for certification should not be determined solely by the Central Authority (cf. Sect. IV (v), p. 383).

(ii) Owing to the low standard of attainment of the majority of students admitted to Training Colleges the greater part of a Two-Year Course has to be devoted to continuing their general education, rather than to professional preparation. Consequently the curriculum is crowded, standards remain low for most

students to the end of the course, and the practical training of the future teacher is less effective than it would otherwise be.

(iii) Students in Training Colleges who are preparing to teach older children are now permitted to specialize in one or more subjects. Unfortunately little use is made of their special qualifications in the Elementary School, a lack of co-ordination which renders much of their preparation of little avail.

(iv) The extent to which Two-Year Students in University Training Departments can benefit by association with other students is limited by the duration, the standard, and the general character of their course. The experience of Scottish Provincial Committees has been very much the same, and within the last few years separate and special provision has been made at each centre for these students. In England there is a steadily increasing body of opinion in favour of admitting to University Training Departments only students who wish to follow a Four-Year Course, or a One-Year Course of post-graduate study.

(v) The Four-Year Course is free from most of the defects of the Two-Year Course and seems to provide the best type of training for the specialist teacher of older children. Any disadvantages under which the Four-Year Student labours are such as are experienced by most University students, and will disappear as these institutions become better equipped and staffed, and as hostel accommodation becomes more adequate.

IV. *Professional Training of Secondary and other Teachers.* (Chs. VI and VII.)

(i) Post-graduate courses for Secondary Teachers have in the past been frequently criticized as too theoretical. Several University Training Departments now arrange for a continuous period of teaching under normal conditions, and an attempt has been made to evolve a type of training based on the school. It is desirable that the practical side of all Secondary Training Courses should be strengthened and that the year of post-graduate training should aim first and foremost at equipping the student as a teacher. The more advanced and detailed study of educational theory and systems should be deferred to a later period. (Ch. VI.)

(ii) In the training of teachers of younger children greater

freedom from control has resulted in more variety and initiative, and the way is indicated for a more specialized type of training suitable for teachers of children under the age of eleven. (Ch. VII.)

(iii) The training of Teachers of Special Subjects has remained to a considerable extent under the control of representative bodies of teachers. Experiments and schemes for the future indicate the possibility of so widening the sphere of activity of our Universities that they may in time be able to make provision for the education and training of these teachers. (Ch. VII.)

(iv) The relations which have been established between the authorities responsible for training the above groups of teachers and the Board of Education show that it is possible to combine freedom in training with an adequate amount of supervision and control.

(v) The influence of the Teachers Registration Council in systematizing and standardizing training courses for Teachers of Special Subjects has been considerable. Owing to the rapid increase in the number of registered teachers of all types this body is now representative of the whole profession and should share with the Board of Education and the staffs of Universities and Training Institutions the responsibility of maintaining standards of teaching and examination (cf. Sect. VII (v), p. 386).

V. *Finance.* (Ch. X.)

(i) The annual cost of the present system of teacher training is upwards of £2,000,000. Our examination leads us to believe that this expenditure is not yielding an adequate return, and that by a more careful selection of candidates, and the adoption of alternative methods of preliminary education and professional training, more satisfactory results could be obtained. Thus, for example, allowing for wastage, the annual cost of part-time methods of preliminary education is greater than that of a complete Secondary education, while the average annual cost per student in the Two-Year Training College differs but little from the cost per student in the newer Universities.

(ii) The present system of subsidies specially restricted to intending teachers has not been justified by results. Neither the quality nor the supply of teachers has been maintained. It would appear to be a much wiser policy gradually to reduce the

present differentiation as between teachers and other members of the community, so far at least as their general education is concerned. An increase in facilities for Secondary and University education would be necessary, as would also some more permanent settlement on a satisfactory basis of the rates of remuneration of teachers.

(iii) Were the existing differentiation to cease the cost of the preliminary education of intending teachers would be merged in the general expenditure on Secondary education, and the cost of the first three years of a Four-Year Course would be met in the same way as would the cost of the University education of other students.

(iv) The cost of professional training,[1] as distinct from general education and from maintenance, should be met out of public funds and should fall principally on the national exchequer. For maintenance students should be able to obtain assistance from Local Education Authorities under loan schemes; in exceptionally difficult cases grants should be made as at the present time. These changes should be introduced gradually.

(v) A larger proportion of the cost of training falls upon Local Education Authorities maintaining Training Colleges than upon the Authorities maintaining Voluntary Colleges. This is an anomaly which should speedily be removed. Nor should these Authorities bear any of the cost of training students from other areas.

(vi) A reorganization of the system is needed. This should be on national rather than on local lines and might be effected by a National Committee for the Training of Teachers. Provision should be made for the linking up of all Training Colleges with Universities. (See also pp. 389–90.)

VI. *Supply*. (Ch. XI.)

(i) The demand for teachers is ultimately determined by the rate of development of the educational system and the standards of staffing adopted by the community. A more systematic attempt should be made to estimate the needs of the schools over

[1] i.e. the whole of a reformed Two-Year Course or the final year of a Four-Year Course (cf. p. 388).

a longer period so as to avoid sudden changes in these factors with the resulting excess or deficiency of teachers.

(ii) The supply of teachers will always in the long run be determined by the relative attractiveness of the profession. The recent increase in the number of entrants is due to the absence of competing attractions and the prevalence of better conditions as to salary and pensions.

(iii) All grades of the profession should be recruited as widely as possible. Early recruiting, as by the prevailing methods, tends to restrict the field and should therefore be abandoned. Formerly the Elementary Teacher was recruited solely from the Elementary School: now that standards of education have risen the recruiting ground should normally be the Secondary School and the University. As the number of students in these institutions increases the problem of the supply of teachers becomes more and more capable of solution (cf. Sect. VII (v) (*c*), p. 386).

(iv) Ultimately the profession should compete as far as possible on an equal basis with other professions, allowance being made for the advantages [1] which accrue to its members from their association with the State.

VII. *General.* (Chs. VIII, IX, XII, XIII, and XIV.)

(i) Owing to the difficulty of securing adequate and continuous responsibility during training a period of probationary service after its completion is needed. For the same reason, and also as a means of helping teachers to keep in touch with developments in educational theory and practice, existing arrangements for further instruction and training should be extended and should become an integral part of the system. In co-ordinating facilities for this a National Committee for the Training of Teachers would be of great value. (Ch. VIII.)

(ii) The continued employment of unqualified teachers tends to perpetuate low standards of education and training. The employment of Supplementary Teachers is uneconomical because educationally unsound. Nor can it be justified on the ground that from them the ranks of qualified teachers are recruited. Money expended in assisting them to improve their qualifications produces but the scantiest of returns; in the case of teachers

[1] e. g. Assured salary, pension.

already in service some expenditure is permissible as an act of justice.

The period of service of Uncertificated Teachers should be limited, and the Certificate Examination for Acting Teachers should be abolished. The example of Scotland shows that each of these advances is possible. (Ch. IX.)

(iii) The regulations of the Teachers Registration Council, and the provisions of the Education Act, 1918, which relate to Private Schools, are probably sufficient, if enforced, to ensure the elimination of inefficient schools and teachers of this type. (Ch. IX.)

(iv) An examination of arrangements in the United States and France shows that each country is deliberately striving to adapt its teacher-training system to the educational system as a whole. Each, too, is endeavouring to give the Elementary Teacher a more liberal preparation, the United States by lengthening the course and raising it to Senior College standard, France by a revision of curricula and by the introduction of a freer régime in Primary Normal Schools. France illustrates the effects of extreme centralization in administration and localization of the supply of teachers, the United States of localization in both respects. In the former country we have uniform standards, but limited scope for initiative, in the latter varying standards and much experiment. (Chs. XII and XIII.)

(v) Recent experiments in training indicate the possibility and the advantage of :

(*a*) Making training courses for all teachers more practical.

(*b*) Helping students to understand the environment of their pupils, and familiarizing them with various forms of social service.

(*c*) Recruiting the profession more widely, and, subject to necessary safeguards, at a later age than is customary. (Ch. XIV.)

VIII. *The Future.* (Ch. XIV.)

(i) Schemes for the future which we have examined agree in that they require for the intending teacher an uninterrupted period of preliminary education in a Secondary School to

matriculation standard, and also the establishing of some connexion between Training Colleges and Universities. They differ in the extent to which they separate general education from professional training.

(ii) For the present it seems wiser to differentiate between a Two-Year Course of professional training for teachers of younger children, and a Four-Year Course for teachers of older children. The former would be followed in a separate College closely associated with a University, the latter would for the first three years be an ordinary degree course to be followed in a University with other students. For the final year of post-graduate training students might be transferred to Training Colleges directly under University control (cf. pp. 389–90.)

(iii) With a re-arrangement of this kind existing Training College accommodation would be sufficient for present needs. Expansion would, however, be needed in the Universities, but this would be to advantage of the whole community, and not merely of a particular section.

(iv) Ultimately when standards of education have risen and facilities for University education are both more accessible and more varied, it may be possible for Universities to assume entire responsibility for the general education of all teachers.

OUTLINE OF A REFORMED SYSTEM OF TEACHER TRAINING

Omitting from further discussion the fundamental problems of the relative attractiveness of the teaching profession and the ampler provision of educational facilities open to all, we suggest that a revision of existing arrangements should be guided by the following considerations :

a. The education and training of teachers for all grades of school is one problem and not several distinct problems, and the same principles are applicable throughout.

b. Teacher training is a national rather than a local concern, responsibility for which should be divided between the Universities and the State.

c. If Teaching is to become a Profession, in fact as well as in name, it is necessary that:

(i) Teachers should play a prominent part in determining standards of education and training.

(ii) These standards should be high and should rise steadily with the standard of education of the community.

(iii) The present system of subsidies to intending teachers should give way to an extended provision of facilities for secondary and university education open to all.

d. Training Courses should have a clear aim and to this end should follow rather than proceed concurrently with general education.

e. The intending teacher should be associated as long and as fully as possible with students preparing for other walks in life.

A complete application of the principles enunciated above would provide for every teacher a completed secondary and university education, followed by a period of professional training. This may be regarded as the ideal towards the attainment of which all modifications should be directed. Meantime the need which has arisen for a reorganization of our educational system on lines which would make all education before the age of eleven primary, and all subsequent education prior to the University stage, secondary, suggests an intermediate reform for which the time seems ripe. This will be set out in the following sections.

1. The preparation of every teacher should be regarded as divisible into three stages:

i. General education.
ii. Professional training.
iii. Probation.

2. *General education.* For Primary Teachers this should consist of not less than full time education in a Secondary School, terminated by an examination of matriculation standard.[1] All Secondary Teachers should be required to pass on to a Three-

[1] This would be the minimum and the normal arrangement, but nothing should prevent intending Primary Teachers, who are able to do so, from entering a University.

Year Degree Course at a University, but no particular combination of subjects should be prescribed for all intending teachers alike.

3. *Preliminary Test.* A short testing period of from three to six months should be interposed between general education and professional training with a view to eliminating unsuitable candidates. Intending Primary Teachers should be interviewed by a Selection Committee representative of Teachers in Elementary and Secondary Schools and of the Local Education Authority. Approved candidates should pass into selected schools, and at the end of the period their suitability for the profession should be decided upon by the same committee after considering reports upon each student's work—unless, of course, the trial period had already been terminated by the withdrawal of the candidate, or for other good reason. For Secondary Teachers the preliminary testing period might be arranged by a University Training Department in co-operation with selected Secondary Schools.

4. *Professional Training.*

(*a*) *Primary Teachers.* Approved candidates who possessed the necessary qualifications should pass into a Training College for a Two-Year Course of professional training. The course of study and training should be determined by the College staff acting in conjunction with representatives of a University.

(*b*) *Secondary Teachers.* Intending Secondary Teachers should follow a One-Year Post-Graduate course of professional training in a University Training Department, or in a Training College organized as a School of the University.

(*c*) *Special Subjects Teachers.* For the present, courses of training should continue to be provided in special Training Colleges, and should be for not less than two years, but preferably for three. The first part of the period should be devoted to the study of the special subject, and the remainder to professional training. The respective parts of the course should be arranged by the staff of the Training Institution in co-operation with the appropriate departments of a University.

(*d*) *General.* (i) The course of preparation for all teachers should include a study both of the theory and practice of teaching. Every Training Institution should be associated with schools of

the type for which students were preparing, and practice in teaching, so far as possible, should be carried out under ordinary school conditions.

(ii) All training courses should be subject to the approval of the Teachers Registration Council and the Board of Education.

5. *Probation.* Final qualification as a teacher in any type of school should be dependent upon the completion of a period of probation.[1] This should be under the joint supervision of the staff of the Training Institution, the Local Education Authority, and the Board of Education, and should be spent in specially selected schools. On its satisfactory completion a teacher should be eligible for admission to the official Register of Teachers, and for employment in any approved school.[2]

6. *Further Education and Training.* In addition to an extended provision of vacation schools and classes of the type described in this volume, arrangements should be made for a certain proportion of the teachers in the employment of every Local Education Authority to return each year for a short period to a Training Institution for a specially arranged course of further study of educational theory and practice.

7. *Administration and Finance.*

i. For administrative purposes a National Committee for the Training of Teachers should be set up as in Scotland. This committee should consist of representatives of the Local Education Authorities responsible for Higher Education, and should act through a specially constituted Central Executive. Provision should be made for co-opting on the Executive and all sub-committees representatives of Universities, of Training Institutions, and of teachers.

ii. It should be the duty of the National Committee :

(*a*) To consider periodically the position as to the supply of teachers, and the measures to be adopted to avoid an excess or deficiency.

(*b*) To arrange for the provision of an adequate supply of training facilities, and to co-ordinate them with a view to meeting the needs of the country as a whole, and of the various parts of the school system.

[1] One year at least, longer if necessary.

[2] The Board of Education Certificate, if retained, should merely be regarded as a licence to teach in State-aided Schools, granted to those possessing approved qualifications.

(*c*) To administer the funds available for teacher-training from Local and Central Authorities. The Central Authority should contribute the larger share of the cost; the contribution of Local Authorities should be calculated on an agreed basis, and should be fixed annually by the National Committee.[1]

(*d*) To supervise and assist in the drawing up of schemes for the linking up of existing Training Colleges with Universities.[2]

iii. The cost of the general education of all intending teachers should be met in the same way as that of other students. The cost of professional training as distinct from maintenance should be borne by Central and Local Authorities in agreed proportions, the student contributing a nominal fee. For maintenance he should be able to obtain assistance from the Local Education Authority, either in the form of a loan repayable out of salary under an agreed arrangement, or, in necessitous cases, as an absolute grant.

8. *General.* i. During the period of general education no promise to enter the teaching profession should be required. Students applying for maintenance grants during professional training should be required to give a pledge as to future service, in accordance with the amount of assistance received. For others a declaration of intention to serve in an approved school would be sufficient.

ii. Entrants into the profession at a later stage should be welcomed provided their standard of general education was equal to that demanded of candidates entering at the usual age. They should be required to fulfil the same conditions as to training and certification.

[1] It would be necessary to equalize the rate of contribution as between Local Authorities maintaining Training Colleges and others, after considering the additional expenditure incurred by the former in respect of premises. The bodies providing Voluntary Colleges would be responsible for the fabric, the National Committee for the expenditure incurred in the professional training of students. The National Committee should have power to accept the transfer of any College and arrange for the whole management and upkeep.

[2] In connexion with the above proposals it should be noted that opinion in Wales is strongly in favour of educational autonomy under the control of a Welsh National Council. It is thought that this Council might include among its functions the provision and control of institutions for the training of teachers.

APPENDIX A

PRELIMINARY EDUCATION

1. Typical Scheme for the training and further education of Student Teachers.
2. Typical Scheme for the education and training of Rural Pupil Teachers.
3. Scheme for the preliminary education of teachers (Cambridgeshire Education Committee).
4. Typical Form of undertaking for intending teachers.
5. List of examinations qualifying for admission to a Training College.
6. List of qualifying examinations for One-Year Students.
7. Qualifications other than degrees for admission to a Secondary Training College.

1. TYPICAL SCHEME FOR THE SUPERVISION, TRAINING, AND FURTHER GENERAL EDUCATION OF STUDENT TEACHERS, 1921–2

EMPLOYMENT

Student Teachers shall be employed as part of the Staff of a Public Elementary School selected with the approval of the Board of Education as suitable for the purpose. (Article 15 (*e*) of the Regulations for the Training of Teachers, 1920.)

They shall be engaged for one year, dating from the day on which their employment or training begins, and they shall be paid an inclusive salary of £30 a year for boys and £27 a year for girls.

They shall, also, be employed, in all other respects, in strict conformity with the conditions regulating their recognition as Student Teachers by the Board of Education as prescribed by Chapter I of the Regulations for the Training of Teachers, 1920.

SUPERVISION AND TRAINING

Due regard shall be paid to their General Supervision, Training, and Records of work as required by Chapter I of the Regulations for the Training of Teachers, 1920, and upon the lines suggested in the Board of Education's Circular 597.

Student Teachers shall, in the first instance, be under the direct supervision of the Head Teachers of the Schools in which they are employed, but a person or persons shall be appointed by this Committee to exercise general control and care over their training in the Art of Teaching.

Head Teachers shall be requested to give especial attention to the following points :

(*a*) The Student Teacher's gradual initiation into the Art of Teaching, for which purpose he shall not during the first half year be placed in responsible charge of a class.

(*b*) A general survey of the work throughout the School under the Head Teacher's personal direction and superintendence.

(*c*) The preparation by the Student Teacher of Short Notes of lessons to be given to different classes on various subjects in the Head Teacher's presence, with subsequent observations by him and discussion thereon.

(*d*) The hearing of lessons given by the Head Teacher or by other Certificated Teachers.

(*e*) The making of simple apparatus for the illustration of Object or other Oral Lessons.

(*f*) The practising of Blackboard Sketching, so as to acquire facility in the ready illustration of lessons by means of simple sketches, quickly drawn as the lesson is proceeding.

(*g*) That only a limited time be devoted to the mechanical correction of exercises.

The person or persons appointed by the Committee under Clause 5 to exercise general supervision over the training of Student Teachers shall :

(*a*) Examine from time to time the Student Teachers' Records of Work, Notes of Lessons and Diary, and criticize, and offer advice thereon.

(*b*) As far as practicable arrange for the visits of Student Teachers to other Schools under personal supervision.

GENERAL EDUCATION

Student Teachers shall, for further general education and subject to the approval of the Governors, attend two half-days each week, the Secondary Schools at which they received their education as Bursars, and their courses of study shall be planned by and be under the direction and supervision of the Head Masters or Head Mistresses of such Schools.

2. PUPIL TEACHERS IN RURAL SCHOOLS

PARTICULARS OF TYPICAL COUNTY SCHEME

1. *Admission.*

Candidates will be required to pass a test examination in Arithmetic and English Composition. Other subjects, such as Geography, History, and an English book or books may be offered.

2. *Physical Fitness of Candidates.*

The Board of Education require that candidates for recognition as Pupil Teachers shall be suitable in respect of health and freedom from personal defects. The Committee may, therefore, require candidates to submit themselves to medical examination.

3. *Provision for Training in Teaching.*

Head Teachers will be responsible for the training in teaching of the Pupil Teachers appointed in their Schools.

During the first year of a Four-Year Pupil Teachership the Board of Education Regulations do not require a Pupil Teacher to be employed or trained in teaching and, as a general rule, the Committee do not consider it advisable for the Pupil Teacher to be employed during this year. They are prepared, however, in exceptional cases to sanction the employment or training of the Pupil Teacher during not more than five hours per week. This should be arranged so that the Pupil Teacher is not teaching for more than one hour in a half-day. Application for approval of such employment should be made by the Head Teacher before the time-table is submitted.

Later in a Pupil Teacher's course more time may be given to teaching practice, provided the Regulations of the Board are observed.

4. *Instruction.*

The instruction of Four-Year Pupil Teachers during the first year will, as a rule, be left in the hands of Head Teachers, who must submit a scheme of work at the commencement of the first year. For other Pupil Teachers, instruction supplementary to that given by Head Teachers will be provided by means of Central Classes, or if this is impossible, by correspondence tuition. The plan, according to which the work will be provided between the Head Teacher and the Central Class, may be varied in individual cases, but usually the Head Teacher will continue to teach Arithmetic, English Grammar, Geography, Music, and Biology or Gardening, while the Central Class will become responsible for instruction in History, English Literature and Composition, and Drawing. Special arrangements as to Needlework will be made in each case. Head Teachers are expected to give individual tuition to the Pupil Teachers in their charge. Such tuition should occupy not less than five hours per week if the Head Teacher is responsible for the whole of the instruction given, or four hours if the Head Teacher shares the work with a Central Class.

5. *Time-Tables.*

Head Teachers must draw up and submit to the Director of Education at the beginning of each Pupil Teacher year, time-tables for the work of the Pupil Teachers in their schools. The time-tables must show the lessons given by the Head Teacher out of school hours, and must include schemes for the Pupil Teachers' home studies. Time as required must be allowed in school hours for the preparation of work for any Central Classes. A copy of the approved time-table for each Pupil Teacher must be kept at the School.

6. *Payments to Head Teachers.*

Head Teachers are paid for the instruction given by them to Pupil Teachers out of school hours at the rate of £20 per annum for one Pupil Teacher, and £10 for each Pupil Teacher after the first whose period of recognition commences in the same school year (i. e. 1 August to 31 July) as the first. Payments are made in three instalments, viz. in August, December, April.

7. Holidays.

Pupil Teachers shall have at least two weeks holiday at Christmas, at least two weeks at Easter, and the usual school holiday in the Summer. Where these periods are longer than the school holiday, the extra days may be taken either from the end of the preceding term, or from the beginning of the new term.

3. TYPICAL FORM OF UNDERTAKING REQUIRED IN RESPECT OF SCHOLARSHIPS FOR STUDENTS INTENDING TO ENTER THE TEACHING PROFESSION

In consideration of the award by the County Council to my (son) (daughter) (ward) of a I the undersigned (son) (daughter) (ward) hereby undertake that in the event of my said (son) (daughter) (ward) failing to complete a course of training for the teaching profession approved by the Council and at the expiration of such course to become a teacher in an approved school within the meaning of the Board of Education's Regulations for the training of teachers, I will pay to the Council, if so required, an amount equal to the sums expended by the Council in connexion with the maintenance, education and training of my said (son) (daughter) (ward) since the date of the said award or the sum of £30, whichever shall be the less.

(Signature of parent or guardian, and witness)

4. CAMBRIDGESHIRE COUNTY COUNCIL EDUCATION COMMITTEE

EXTRACT FROM THE REGULATIONS FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS (IN FORCE SINCE 1 AUGUST 1918)

The schemes for the future education and training of Elementary School Teachers in the County are as follows :

(*a*) Probation Teachers (Class A).

(i) Candidates must have attended a Secondary School up to seventeen years of age, and have passed the Cambridge Senior Local or an equivalent examination.

(ii) Candidates must be recommended by the Head Teacher of the Secondary School attended to the effect that, so far as he or she can form an opinion, they are of suitable character, and likely to make teachers if trained.

(iii) At least six months must be devoted solely to practice in an Elementary School, and under a Head Teacher selected by the Education Committee, during which period a salary at the rate of £35 a year will be paid by the Elementary Education Authority, together with a sum not exceeding £5 a year if attached to a school more than four miles from home.

(iv) On receipt of a report from the Head Teacher of the Elementary School to the effect that the probation teacher shows capacity for the work, and is likely to make a good teacher if further educated and trained, the period of probation will end, and the candidate must either proceed to a training college or become an uncertificated assistant teacher at the scale rate of salary in the County or Borough where such a teacher is required.

(*b*) Probation Teachers (Class B).

(These are practically Two- or Three-Year Pupil Teachers, remaining in the Secondary School until a qualifying examination has been passed, and spending the rest of the period of their engagement in the Elementary School.)

(*c*) Pupil Teachers (Rural).

Note.—Probation Teachers (Class A) were first recognized in the County in 1903, Class B in 1915. The majority of Class A Probationers enter Training College, and only three candidates appear to have been rejected since the inception of the Scheme. The chief difficulty experienced in its working appears to be due to the fact that Head Teachers have not always sufficient time to devote to the training of the probationer, and where a school is understaffed the latter has to take the place of an experienced teacher.

5. LIST OF EXAMINATIONS QUALIFYING FOR ADMISSION TO A TRAINING COLLEGE [1]

(i) Any of the following Approved First Examinations for Secondary Schools, if the examination was taken after 5 July 1920, provided that the Candidate has obtained a Certificate.

1. The School Certificate Examination of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board.
2. The School Certificate Examination (Senior Local Examination) of the Oxford Delegacy for Local Examinations.
3. The School Certificate Examination (Senior Local Examination) of the Cambridge Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate.
4. The School Certificate Examination of the University of Durham.
5. The General School Examination of the University of London.
6. The School Certificate Examination of the Northern Universities Joint Matriculation Board.

[1] Regulations for the Training of Teachers 1922, Appendix A (I).

7. The School Certificate Examination of the University of Bristol.

8. The Senior Certificate Examination of the Central Welsh Board.

Note.—A Certificate obtained in any of the Approved First Examinations for Secondary Schools named above is accepted as qualifying for admission to a Training College without further conditions, if the Examination was taken after 5 July 1920, which was the date on which these examinations were approved by the Board as First Examinations for Secondary Schools. A Certificate obtained in any corresponding Examination passed before 5 July 1920 will be accepted as qualifying for admission to a Training College if the candidate either (1) has reached a sufficient standard in English, English History, Geography, and Arithmetic as required by Appendix A (1) of the Regulations for the Training of Teachers, 1920, or (2) is specially recommended for admission by the Authorities of the Training College.

(ii) The Preliminary Examination for the Elementary School Teachers' Certificate.

(iii) The Matriculation Examination of any University in England or Wales.

6. LIST OF QUALIFYING EXAMINATIONS FOR ONE-YEAR STUDENTS [1]

N.B.—(1) The Examination must have been passed, as a rule, within the two years and six months preceding 1 August in the year of entering the Training College, but the Board are prepared to consider applications from Training College Authorities for the admission of students whose qualifying Examinations were passed at some earlier date, provided that the College Authorities can certify that these students are fitted to undertake the courses proposed for them.

(2) In order to be qualified under this Appendix a candidate must be reported by the Examiners to have passed in the Examination as a whole as well as in the particular subjects specified. The candidate will not be required to have passed in all the specified subjects at a single examination, but the Board will not as a rule take into account passes obtained in an examination held by some other Examining Body.

1. The Final Degree Examination of any University in the British Isles.
2. The Examination for the Diploma of Associate in Letters of University College, Reading.
3. The Examination for the Diploma of Associate in Science of University College, Reading.
4. Such School Leaving Certificate Examinations conducted by a University as may be approved by the Board, provided that special Advanced Papers are taken in English, a foreign Language, and one other subject.
5. The Higher Local Examination of the University of Oxford, provided that the candidate has obtained a Certificate and satisfied the Examiners in the following subjects :
   (*a*) Arithmetic and English (Section F).

[1] Regulations for the Training of Teachers 1922, Appendix A (II)

(*b*) Either Mathematics (Section D), or Natural Science (Section H).

(*c*) Either Languages (Section A), or Modern History (Section C), or Geography (Section K).

6. The Higher Local Examination of the University of Cambridge, provided that the candidate has obtained a Certificate and satisfied the Examiners in the following subjects :

(*a*) Arithmetic and English (Group A).

(*b*) Either Mathematics (Group C), or Science (Group E).

(*c*) Either Languages (Group B), or Geography (Group G), or History (Group H).

7. The Higher Certificate Examination of the National Froebel Union.

8. Any corresponding or higher examination approved for the purpose by the Board.

7. LIST OF QUALIFICATIONS OTHER THAN DEGREES ACCEPTED FOR ADMISSION TO SECONDARY TRAINING COLLEGES [1]

(i) A Tripos Certificate granted by the University of Cambridge to women, provided that the Examination taken was one which, if passed by a man after three years' residence, would entitle him to a Degree without further examination. Women students who have been allowed the ordinary Degree in a Tripos examination will be regarded as possessing the necessary qualification.

(ii) A special Honours Certificate of the Higher Local Examinations (Oxford and Cambridge) granted under the following conditions :

(*a*) That the certificate includes at least a pass in two languages (other than English) and a pass either in mathematics or in logic ; and

(*b*) That the holder either

(i) has passed in four groups or sections, obtaining a first or a second class in at least two of them ; or

(ii) has passed in three groups or sections, obtaining a first or second class in at least two of them, and holds in addition either (1) an Oxford or a Cambridge Senior Local Certificate in Honours, including at least one subject not included in the three Higher Local groups or sections, or (2) a Higher Certificate of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board, gained in one year, exclusive of drawing and music and including at least one subject not included in the three Higher Local groups or sections.

[1] Regulations for the Training of Teachers 1922, Appendix A (III).

APPENDIX B

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

I. *Elementary Teachers.*

1. List of Training Institutions for Elementary Teachers in England and Wales.
2. Analysis of above list.
3. Extracts from the syllabus for the Board of Education's Final Examination for students in Training Colleges, 1922.
4. Final Examination 1921. Question Papers.
5. Training College Time-Tables.
6. Training College Rules for Students.
7. Form used for Report on School Practice.

II. *Secondary and Domestic Subjects Teachers.*

1. List of Secondary Training Institutions.
2. Diploma Courses for Secondary Teachers—Summary of requirements.
3. University of Cambridge. Syllabus for Examination for Teacher's Certificate, 1922.
4. University of Manchester. Teacher's Diploma. Regulations and Courses of Lectures.
5. University of Oxford. Diploma Examination Papers, 1921.
6. University of Sheffield. Examination Papers for Diploma and for Degree Students taking Education, 1921.
7. List of Recognized Training Schools for Teachers of Domestic Subjects.

1. TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR ELEMENTARY TEACHERS RECOGNIZED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION IN 1921–2

a. ENGLAND

I. TRAINING DEPARTMENTS OR COLLEGES PROVIDED BY UNIVERSITIES AND UNIVERSITY COLLEGES (17)

(Undenominational. Men and Women Students in all except at Cambridge and London University, King's College, which are for Men only)

Place.	*Date of Establishment.*[1]
Birmingham University	1890
Bristol University	1892
Cambridge University	1891
Durham University: Armstrong College, Newcastle-on-Tyne	1890
Durham University: Durham Division	1921
Exeter University College[2]	1901
Leeds University	1891
Liverpool University	1891
London University: Southampton Row (London Day Training College)	1907
London University: King's College	1890
London University: Goldsmiths' College	1905
Manchester University	1890
Nottingham University College	1890
Oxford University	1892
Reading University College	1899
Sheffield University	1891
Southampton University College	1899

[1] This date is not necessarily the same as the date of recognition by the Board of Education.

[2] Until 1922 a Council Training College maintained by the City of Exeter.

II. COUNCIL TRAINING COLLEGES (19). (Undenominational)

Place.	*Date of Establishment.*	*Men or Women.*	*Residential, Day, Hostels.*
Bingley, West Riding of Yorkshire	1911	W.	Res.
Brighton Municipal	1909	W.	Day & Hos.
Crewe, Cheshire County	1908	M. & W.	Day & Hos. (W.)
Dudley	1909	M. & W.	,, ,,
Durham, Neville's Cross	1921	W.	Res.
Hereford County	1904	W.	,,
Hull Municipal	1913	W.	Day & Hos.
Lancaster [1]	1920	M.	Res.
Leeds City	1907	M. & W.	,,
London: Avery Hill	1906	W.	,,
Furzedown	1919	W.	,,
Graystoke Place	1905	W.	Day
Shoreditch Tech. Inst.[2]	1898	M.	,,
Manchester Municipal	1910	W.	,,
,, Mather	1919	W.	Res.
Newcastle-on-Tyne, Kenton Lodge	1921	W.	Day & Hos.
Portsmouth	1907	W.	,,
Sheffield City	1905	M. & W.	,,
Sunderland	1908	W.	Res.

III. VOLUNTARY TRAINING COLLEGES (48) PROVIDED BY OTHER BODIES

Place and Name.	*Date of Establishment.*	*Men or Women.*	*Day or Res.*	*Denomination.*
Bedford [3]	1882	W.	Res.	Undenom.
Birmingham, Saltley	1852	M.	,,	C.E.
,, Selly Park	1910	W.	Day	R.C.
Brighton, Diocesan	1841	W.	Res.	C.E.
Bishop's Stortford, Hockerill	1852	W.	,,	C.E.
Bristol, Fishponds	1853	W.	,,	C.E.
Cheltenham, St. Paul's	1847	M.	,,	C.E.
,, St. Mary's	1847	W.	,,	C.E.
Cambridge, Homerton	1852	W.	,,	Undenom.
Chester, Diocesan	1839	M.	,,	C.E.
Chichester, Diocesan	1839	W.	,,	C.E.
Culham	1853	M.	,,	C.E.
Darlington	1872	W.	,,	Undenom.
Derby, Diocesan	1851	W.	,,	C.E.
Durham, Bede	1841	M.	,,	C.E.
,, St. Hild's	1858	W.	,,	C.E.
Exeter, Diocesan	1840	M.	,,	C.E.
Hull, Roman Catholic	1905	W.	,,	R.C.
Isleworth, Borough Road	1808	M.	,,	Undenom.
Lincoln, Diocesan	1861	W.	,,	C.E.

[1] Temporary for Ex-service men.
[2] Recognized by the Board of Education as a Training College since 1919.
[3] Recognized by the Board of Education as a Training College since 1920.

Place and Name.	Date of Establishment.	Men or Women.	Day or Res.	Denomination.
Liverpool, Edge Hill	1885	W.	Res.	Undenom.
,, Mount Pleasant	1856	W.	,,	R.C.
London, Battersea, Southlands	1872	W.	,,	Wesleyan.
,, ,, St. John's	1840	M.	,,	C.E.
,, Brondesbury, Maria Grey	1878	W.	Day	Undenom.
,, Chelsea, St. Mark's	1841	M.	Res.	C.E.
,, ,, Whitelands	1841	W.	,,	C.E.
,, Hammersmith, St. Mary's	1851	M.	,,	R.C.
,, Roehampton, Froebel Educational Institute	1874	W.	,,	Undenom.
,, Sydenham, Gipsy Hill	1919	W.	,,	Undenom.
,, Kennington, St. Gabriel's	1899	W.	,,	C.E.
,, Kensington, St. Charles's	1874	W.	,,	R.C.
,, Stockwell	1861	W.	,,	Undenom.
,, Tottenham, St. Katharine's	1878	W.	,,	C.E.
,, Westminster, Westminster	1851	M.	,,	Wesleyan
Newcastle-on-Tyne, St. Mary's	1905	W.	,,	R.C.
Norwich, Diocesan	1840	W.	,,	C.E.
Peterborough	1859	W.	,,	C.E.
Ripon, Diocesan	1846	W.	,,	C.E.
Saffron-Walden	1884	W.	,,	Undenom.
Salford, Roman Catholic	1903	W.	,,	R.C.
Salisbury	1841	W.	,,	C.E.
Southampton, Roman Catholic	1904	W.	,,	R.C.
Truro, Diocesan	1857	W.	,,	C.E.
Warrington	1844	W.	,,	C.E.
Winchester, Diocesan	1839	M.	,,	C.E.
Wood Green, Home and Colonial	1836	W.	,,	C.E.
York, Diocesan	1841	M.	,,	C.E.

b. WALES

I. TRAINING DEPARTMENTS OF UNIVERSITY COLLEGES (4)

Undenominational. For Men and Women.

Place.	Date of Establishment.
Aberystwyth	1892
Bangor	1894
Cardiff	1890
Swansea [1]	1872

II. COUNCIL TRAINING COLLEGES (3). Undenominational.

Place.	Date of Establishment.	Men or Women.	Day or Res.
Bangor, Normal [2]	1858	M. & W.	Day
Barry	1909	W.	Res.
Caerleon	1909	M.	,,

[1] 1872–1907 a Voluntary Residential College for Women; 1907–21 a Council Training College under the Swansea Corporation. Now comprises a University Training Department and a Two-Year College for Women.

[2] 1846–1908 a Voluntary Residential College for Men; transferred in 1908 to a Joint Committee of the Carnarvon and Anglesey County Councils; now managed by a Joint Committee representative of five Local Education Authorities, Anglesey, Carnarvon, Denbigh, Flint, and Merioneth.

III. VOLUNTARY TRAINING COLLEGES (2)

Place.	*Date of Establishment.*	*Men or Women.*	*Day or Res.*	*Denomination.*
Bangor . . .	1846	W.	Res.	C.E.
Carmarthen . .	1848	M.	,,	C.E.

2. ANALYSIS OF PRECEDING LIST OF TRAINING INSTITUTIONS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

	Men and Women.	*Men.*	*Women.*	*Total.*
(*a*) TYPES.				
University Training Departments	21	—	—	21
Council Training Colleges . .	5	3	14	22
Voluntary Training Colleges .	—	14	36	50
	26	17	50	93

(*b*) DAY OR RESIDENTIAL.[1]

	Day.	*Residential.*
University Training Departments . . .	21	—
Council Training Colleges :		
For Men and Women	4	1
For Men only	1	2
For Women only	6	8
Voluntary Training Colleges :		
For Men only	—	14
For Women only	2	34
	34	59

(*c*) VOLUNTARY TRAINING COLLEGES classified according to the authorities providing them.

	Church of England.	*Roman Catholic.*	*Other Bodies (chiefly Undenominational).*[2]
For Men	11	1	2
For Women . . .	19	7	10
	30	8	12

[1] The distinction between Day and Residential Training Colleges is gradually becoming less marked, as the former are providing hostels to an increasing extent, particularly for women students.

[2] Two are Wesleyan Colleges, the remainder Undenominational.

3. EXTRACTS FROM THE SYLLABUS FOR THE BOARD OF EDUCATION'S FINAL EXAMINATION FOR STUDENTS IN TRAINING COLLEGES, 1922

PROFESSIONAL SUBJECTS

PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING

Course for Two-Year Students.

The syllabus provides three alternative schemes of study.

The first, consisting of the General Course and the Special Course A . . . to be followed by students who wish to prepare themselves to teach in public elementary schools where advanced instruction under the Act of 1918 is organized for boys and girls over 11 years of age.

The second, consisting of the General Course and the Special Course B . . . for students who wish to prepare themselves to teach in a public elementary school where scholars up to the age of fourteen may be taught.

The third, consisting of the General Course and the Special Course C, is for students who wish to prepare themselves to teach in Infants' and Junior Schools of various types.

The syllabuses are intended to indicate the general lines on which the study of the Principles of Teaching may be carried on; it is not suggested either that all students will necessarily study the whole of the syllabuses proper to their courses or that equal importance necessarily attaches to all parts of the syllabuses. Provision will be made in the examination papers, so far as is possible within reasonable limits, for a considerable diversity in the treatment of the syllabuses by offering students a wide choice of questions.

Marks of Credit may be awarded by the Board to students who reach a sufficiently high standard in (*a*) the written papers on the Principles of Teaching, and (*b*) practical teaching. Marks of Distinction may be awarded to students who have reached an exceptionally high standard in (*a*) and (*b*) above, and have also during their Two-Years' Course written a satisfactory Essay or Thesis on some subject arising out of or directly connected with their work in Principles and Practice of Teaching.

These Essays or Theses, after being corrected and marked by the College Authorities, should be sent to the Board not later than the date of the Final Examination.

A student who fails in the Principles and Practice of Teaching will be held to have failed in the examination, and will be required to pass a further test in the Principles and Practice of Teaching in order to qualify for the certificate.

General Course

The functions and ideals of public elementary schools, and their relation to other branches of the national system of education; their connexion with the home, the home surroundings, and with other agencies affecting the welfare and education of children.

The conditions of healthy work in school; school buildings, playgrounds, playing-fields, equipment, and apparatus. Work and play in the open air. Training in good physical habits.

The study of children's development from the point of view of physique, intelligence, and character, based as far as possible on observation of individuals and of classes.

An elementary study of the means by which children acquire knowledge and skill, including such as the following:

The senses and sense-training; instincts and their relation to children's interests; forms of activity and of expression; the function of play; imitation and suggestion; habits and their formation; memory and imagination; interest and attention; the formation of clear and connected ideas; simple processes of reasoning; growth of the will.

The aims and methods of discipline; training in responsibility, in the right use of freedom, and in the social virtues.

The stages of the school course; the junior stage, the middle stage, the senior stage. The classification, curriculum, and general methods of teaching appropriate to each stage.

The choice of the curriculum; its content, suitability, varieties; the connexion and development of subjects.

Methods of teaching and of study in general. Forms and characteristics of class-teaching, of sectional work, and of individual study. Exposition, illustration, questioning, correction. The importance of practical work; the use of books.

The teacher's preparation of lessons and of series of lessons. The selection of suitable material and of methods of treatment. Uses and methods of revision, testing, examination. The arrangement of time-tables.

Special Course A

The detailed study and practice of the methods of teaching one of the following subjects in schools offering advanced instruction to scholars over eleven years of age:

1. English.
2. Arithmetic and Mathematics.
3. Geography.
4. History.
5. Physical Science.
6. Biological Science.
7. Welsh.

Students will be expected to show an intimate knowledge of the subject chosen for special study, not only as a part of their own general education, but also as it may be adapted for school purposes.

The examination paper will deal mainly with the teaching of the special subject chosen. The paper will also contain some compulsory questions on the teaching of English and Arithmetic.

Special Course B

The principles and methods of teaching the subjects, including Drawing and Handwork, which usually form part of the curriculum of elementary schools for scholars seven to fourteen years of age, as

generally outlined in the Board's ' Suggestions to Teachers '. Questions on the teaching of Music, Hygiene, and Physical Training will not be set in the examination paper, as such questions will appear in the special papers on those subjects.

Students will be at liberty to answer the required number of questions either by free choice from the paper as a whole or from one or more sections dealing with the teaching of the separate subjects. Some compulsory questions will, however, be set on the teaching of English and of Arithmetic which must be attempted by all students.

Special Course C

The subjects and methods of instruction and training suitable to Infants' and Junior Schools, as indicated in the Board's ' Suggestions to Teachers '. Students will be expected to have made a more particular study of the physical and mental development of young children, and they should be acquainted with the literature, music, games, &c., appropriate to the needs of such children.

GENERAL SUBJECTS

Group A

ENGLISH

There will continue to be (*a*) an Ordinary Course, (*b*) an Advanced Course, and in each course certain books will be prescribed for detailed study. The Ordinary Course will continue, as at present, to be a single Scheme, but within its limits will admit of more variety of choice than has been allowed hitherto. The Advanced Course will include all the books laid down in the Ordinary Course, but Advanced Course Students will be expected to have read all, or most, of these books, and not merely some of them. It will, however, be open to Advanced Course Students to follow, for their general reading, any one of three Alternative Schemes, each of which will enable them to devote themselves to a particular aspect of literary study, and in doing so to read the works of one author, or of several, in close relation one with another. It will be understood that it is not the Board's desire that the general reading of the students should in any case be confined to the works prescribed for that purpose.

Every student will be expected to write an essay ; and one at least of the subjects set will be of a kind to enable all students to show how far they have read books, whether within or without the syllabus, with appreciation and intelligence.

Advanced Course Students will be given an opportunity, in the Composition paper, of writing an essay upon some subject arising out of, or immediately connected with, the Scheme which they select.

Ordinary Course

1. For detailed study.

One of the following plays of Shakespeare : *King Henry IV* (Part 2), *The Tempest.*

It will be open to any Training College to offer either of these two

plays for detailed study, and the other for general reading. The paper of questions will be framed so as to admit of this. See 2 (*a*) below.

2. For general reading.
   (*a*) One of the following plays of Shakespeare: *King Henry IV* (Part 2), *The Tempest.* (See 1 above.)
   (*b*) (i) An anthology of English verse. It is suggested that one of the following books should be used, but the list is not exhaustive:
   The Golden Treasury of Songs and Lyrics (Oxford Edition), *The Oxford Book of English Verse* (A. T. Q. Couch), *The Paradise of English Poetry* (H. C. Beeching), *The Open Road* (E. V. Lucas), *English Lyrics from Chaucer to Poe* (W. E. Henley), *The Flower of the Mind* (Mrs. Meynell).
   (ii) Robert Browning: *Selections.*
   (iii) Tennyson: *Selections.* (The Dramatic Poems are excluded.)
   (*c*) (i) Burke: *On Conciliation with America.*
   (ii) De Quincey: *The English Mail Coach and other Essays.* (Everyman Edition, pages 1 to 249 only.)
   (iii) Carlyle: *Heroes and Hero Worship.*
   (iv) R. L. Stevenson: *Virginibus Puerisque.*
   (*d*) (i) Scott: *The Heart of Midlothian.*
   (ii) Thackeray: *Esmond.*
   (iii) Dickens: *A Tale of Two Cities.*
   (iv) George Eliot: *Adam Bede.*
   (v) Charlotte Brontë: *Jane Eyre.*
   (vi) Trollope: *Dr. Thorne.*
   (vii) Charles Reade: *The Cloister and the Hearth.*
   (viii) R. L. Stevenson: *Kidnapped,* and *The Master of Ballantrae.*

Ordinary Course Students will be expected to answer questions on five out of the fifteen books prescribed in 2 (*b*), (*c*), and (*d*) above. For this purpose, the two novels of R. L. Stevenson will be regarded as one 'book'. The students will not be allowed, however, to answer more than two questions on the books mentioned in 2 (*d*); and they may, if they choose, confine themselves entirely to 2 (*b*) and (*c*).

Advanced Course

1. For detailed study.
   (*a*) Either (i) Shakespeare: *King Henry IV* (Part 2), *The Tempest,*
   or (ii) Milton: *Paradise Lost,* I and II.
   (*b*) Either (i) Burke: *On Conciliation with America,*
   or (ii) Bacon: *Essays*—Of Unity in Religion, Of Envy, Of Seditions and Troubles, Of Empire, Of Nature in Men, Of Honour and Reputation.
2. For general reading.

Scheme A

Advanced Course Students may take Sections 2 (*b*), (*c*), and (*d*) of the Ordinary Course above, on the understanding that they will be expected to have read all, or most, of these books.

In place of Scheme A, Advanced Course Students may take one of the Alternative Schemes, B, C, or D, described below.

Students taking any one of the three Alternative Schemes, B, C, or D, will not be expected to answer more than four questions, at most, on the Scheme which they select. In place of one of these questions they will be allowed to answer a question on the poetry of Browning.

Scheme B

The Plays of Shakespeare, with special reference to the following :

Romeo and Juliet, A Midsummer Night's Dream, Much Ado About Nothing, Twelfth Night, Hamlet, Macbeth, King Lear, The Tempest.

Scheme C

The Romantic Revival of English Poetry.

A study of some of the principal poems of the following authors : Blake : *Songs of Innocence* and *Songs of Experience* ; Coleridge ; Wordsworth ; Scott : *Lyrical Poems*, and *Lay of the Last Minstrel* ; Byron ; Shelley ; Keats.

Students are advised to make some study of such works of criticism as Coleridge's *Biographia Literaria*, Wordsworth's *Preface* and *Essay on Poetic Diction* in his Poems of 1802, Hazlitt's *Spirit of the Age*, Matthew Arnold's *Essays in Criticism* (vol. ii), &c.

Scheme D

Some study of the English Essay, with special reference to the following works :

Addison : *Selected Essays*, Golden Treasury Series. Charles Lamb : *Essays of Elia*. De Quincey : *The English Mail Coach and other Essays* (Everyman Edition, pages 1 to 249 only). Macaulay : *Essay on Bacon*, and *Essay on Milton*. Ruskin : *Sesame and Lilies*. W. Bagehot : *Literary Studies*, vol. ii (Everyman Edition, pages 1 to 351 only). R. L. Stevenson : *Virginibus Puerisque*.

HISTORY

Four Alternative Schemes are provided for the Ordinary Course, and three for the Advanced Course, admitting of further variation within their limits. As a rule, the Schemes for the Advanced Course correspond to the Schemes for the Ordinary Course designated by the same number, in such a way that students taking the two courses may, if it is found desirable, work together up to a certain point.

For the examination on the Ordinary Course one paper will be set, and for the examination on the Advanced Course two papers.

Ordinary Course

Scheme 1

The History of Mediaeval England from the death of Edward the Confessor to 1485. The paper on this Scheme will not be confined to Political History, but will include questions on Social Life and Customs, and an opportunity will be given to students to show knowledge of Architectural and Local History. Some special questions will be set dealing with Welsh History.

Scheme 2

The History of England from the Accession of Elizabeth to the Restoration. Some special questions will be set dealing with Welsh History.

Scheme 3

The course of study should deal with one of the two following alternatives:

(*a*) The History of England from the middle of the eighteenth century, with special reference to Colonial History and Industrial History. Students will not be required to give equal attention to the two portions of the subject.

(*b*) The History of Europe, including the History of England from 1789 to 1914.

Scheme 4

(i) A general survey of the History of England up to the present time. The authorities of each college should submit a scheme showing how it is proposed to treat this part of the course. Each college will be at liberty to emphasize such aspects of the subject as will meet its special requirements. No examination on this part of the course will be held by the Board, but the work of the students should be tested in such manner as the college authorities think advisable. This part of the course is to be taken during the first year.

(ii) The history and working of the most important institutions in the Government of the United Kingdom, including the Local Government of England and Wales and the relation of the Colonies and Dependencies to the United Kingdom. A paper on this part of the course will be set in the Board's Final Examination.

Advanced Course

Scheme 1

The course of study should deal with the History of Mediaeval England from the death of Edward the Confessor to 1485, together with one of the three following alternatives:

(*a*) The Social and Economic Condition of England from the middle of the fourteenth to the end of the fifteenth century. Students will be expected to read the Prologue to the *Canterbury Tales* and Froissart's account of the Campaigns of Creçy and Poitiers and the reign of Richard II, and to show some knowledge of some of the contemporary literature; e. g. of Piers Plowman and of the Paston Letters.

(*b*) The Crusades. Students will be expected to read a translation of Joinville's *Chronicles of Louis IX.*

(*c*) The History of Wales from 1066 to 1485.

Scheme 2

The course of study should deal with one of the three following alternatives:

(*a*) The Age of Elizabeth, including exploration and discovery during the sixteenth century and the general outlines of European History during this period.

(*b*) The Puritan Revolution from the Accession of Charles I to the Restoration. Students will be expected to show an acquaintance with selections from Clarendon's *Great Rebellion*, and from the *Letters and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell*. Some special questions will be set dealing with Welsh History.

(*c*) The Era of the Protestant Revolution from the Revival of Learning to the end of the Council of Trent. In addition to the History of the Reformation in England students will be expected to show a general knowledge of the main course of events in Western Europe, and questions will also be set on the Life of Erasmus, with special reference to Froude's *Life and Letters of Erasmus*, and the Life of Sir Thomas More, with the *Utopia*.

Scheme 3

The course of study should deal with one of the two following alternatives:

(*a*) The History of England from the middle of the eighteenth century, with special reference to Colonial History and Industrial History. Students will not be required to give equal attention to the two portions of the subject. A fuller knowledge of the subject will be required than in the case of the corresponding Ordinary Course.

(*b*) The History of Europe (including the History of England) from 1789 to 1914.

4. BOARD OF EDUCATION. FINAL EXAMINATION OF STUDENTS IN TRAINING COLLEGES

Question Papers, 1921

PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING

GENERAL COURSE

Wednesday, June 29th, 10.0–1.0

Five questions may be attempted

1. Mention some changes now taking place in our school system and say how you think they may affect the functions of the Elementary School.

2. What modifications of the curriculum and the methods of teaching in the ordinary school would you consider desirable in the upper classes

of a school from which the brightest scholars had been transferred to Secondary or Central Schools ?

3. ' Not words but things ' was one of the cries of early educational reformers. How far, in your opinion, has this doctrine affected Elementary Schools, and to what extent has the change been beneficial ?

4. Inclemency of weather may deprive your class of its outdoor recreation, or you may be allowed an optional period in the week's time-table. What methods of employing the time would you suggest in each of these two cases, and why ?

5. Why is the careful correction of the written work of a class of such great importance ? What are the best ways of dealing with the corrected work, and by what means may the teacher's task of correcting it be lightened ? Frame your answer with reference to a particular class.

6. What principles should guide the teacher in the linking up of new work with old ? Illustrate your answer by reference to particular subjects in a specified class.

7. On what grounds would you judge whether a class was too tired to profit by instruction ? Indicate how you would, in giving a half-hour lesson in Arithmetic, History, or Geography to a tired class, seek to make the best of the situation.

8. At a recent conference a head master stated that he disbelieved in corporal punishment and that his general principle was to make the punishment fit the crime. How far, in your opinion, would this policy be effective in Elementary Schools, and in what ways could it be applied?

9. ' Not clinging to some ancient saw ;
Not mastered by some modern term ;
Not swift nor slow to change, but firm.'

Discuss this as a rule of conduct for teachers in view of the rapidity of modern developments in educational methods.

10. ' Modern education entirely reverses the natural order of a child's development, for at five years old he begins to receive a training which is mainly literary and intellectual, while at twelve years he exchanges this for a training which is largely manual and practical.' Criticize this statement in the light of your knowledge of children and schools.

11. Why do the so-called Comic Papers appeal so strongly to practically all children of school age ? What insight does this give you into factors which stimulate children's interest ?

12. ' There are some things which have to be learnt by heart before they are understood and many things which ought to be understood before they are learnt by heart.' Discuss this statement with illustrations.

13. Describe any types of children which you would classify as ' dull and backward '. What considerations would guide you in thus classifying them, and, in teaching them, what special methods would you adopt ?

14. What are the common causes of ' untruthfulness ' in young children, and what, in your opinion, are the best methods of dealing with it ?

15. In the home, the child, but in the school, the teacher, asks the

questions. Compare the mental attitude of the child in these two cases. What steps can be taken to encourage inquisitiveness without detriment to class discipline ?

16. ' The truest insight into a child's character is afforded by observing his behaviour.' Discuss this statement with reference to any two children known to you whose behaviour you consider exceptional.

17. The educative value of a task has been held to depend almost wholly upon the effort made to accomplish it and to have little relation to the success or failure of the attempt. Give your views upon this matter, illustrating them by actual examples.

18. Which types of lesson during your school practice have been most enjoyed by (*a*) yourself, and (*b*) your class ? Account for this as far as you can.

Final Examination, 1921

PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING

SPECIAL COURSE A. (1) ENGLISH

Thursday, 30 June, 10 a.m. to 1 p.m.

One question, and one question only, must be attempted from each of Sections A and B, but candidates are advised not to spend more than one hour over these two questions.

Three questions may be attempted from Section C, but full marks can be obtained in this Section by answering two questions really well.

Special credit will be given for answers illustrated from your own experience or observation.

Section A

1. ' English is the common bond which unites the whole curriculum.' Show in some detail how you would in practice apply this principle in the teaching of a particular class.

2. For what reasons is it desirable that children should learn by heart passages of prose or poetry ? In what ways would you help them (i) to select passages, (ii) to commit them to memory, (iii) to retain them when learnt ?

3. Children may read books either for pleasure or for information. What difference would you make between the two kinds of reading as regards the choice of books and the methods of teaching ?

4. Among the subjects set for written composition to Standard V in a certain school were the following : (i) Spring. (ii) A letter about Canada. (iii) Punctuality. (iv) What I did on Saturday. (v) The feet and beaks of birds. (vi) The autobiography of a pair of boots.

How far do you consider the above subjects suitable ? Suggest, where you think it desirable, ways in which they might be improved.

Section B

5. What do you understand by ' problems ' in Arithmetic ? What is their value, and how would you use them in teaching Elementary School children ?

6. What practical work would you do with a class to illustrate the rule for the addition of fractions ?

7. What do you consider to be the commonest faults and worst defects in style and method of presentation of arithmetical work ? What steps would you take to prevent or eradicate them ?

Section C

In each of your answers state the age of the children of whom you propose to write, unless it is already indicated in the question.

8. Assuming that you have been successful in securing in your class a standard of English Composition that is reasonably fluent and correct, but dull and commonplace, how would you set about encouraging positive merit (*a*) in thought, (*b*) in style ?

9. What do you understand by the rhythm of language ? What methods would you employ to cultivate this sense in your class ?

10. In some schools children are encouraged to write original stories and plays. Consider the value of such activities and discuss possible methods of organizing this work, illustrating from experience where possible.

11. Discuss the value of formal instruction in grammar between the ages of fourteen and sixteen. Indicate clearly the scope of the training you would consider it advisable to give.

12. ' Literature when rightly treated may play a very important part in the development of the mind and character of the girl and boy over fourteen.'

Suppose that you are going to read a paper to your fellow students on the above subject. State clearly the points you would attempt to make and give some indication of how you would propose to drive your points home. You may deal with either the girl or the boy or both.

13. Answer either (*a*) or (*b*) at fair length, or both shortly.

(*a*) It is suggested in a popular educational paper that the scheme of poetry in a class should be chosen to suit the season of the year, month by month. Criticize this scheme.

(*b*) ' Wordsworth's child-lyrics are essentially unsuitable for school purposes.' Give your reasons for agreeing or disagreeing with this opinion.

14. If the School in which you were teaching had the use of the children's reading-room of a free library, how would you propose to use it so far as your own special subject is concerned ? Give some indication of the books you would hope to find there for your purpose.

15. Select two or three subjects other than English in the School curriculum, and show in what way and to what extent you would expect the children's work in these subjects to be influenced by sound English teaching.

5. TRAINING COLLEGE TIME-TABLES

a. EXAMPLES OF DAILY ROUTINE

1.

Residential C. of E. College for Men.

7.45.	Chapel.
8.0.	Breakfast.
9.0 to 12.45.	Lectures (15 mins. break).
1.30.	Dinner.
	Recreation (but several afternoons lectures and Demonstration Lessons).
4.30.	Tea.
5.30 to 7.0.	Lectures and Study.
—	Chapel.
—	Supper.
8.30 to 9.45.	Study.

2.

Residential C. of E. College for Women.

7.30.	Breakfast.
8.25 to 8.40.	Chapel
8.50 to 1.0.	Lectures (25 mins. break).
1.15.	Dinner
4.15.	Tea.
5.5 to 8.10.	Lectures and Study.
8.20.	Supper.
8.40 to 9.10.	Study
9.15 to 9.30.	Chapel.

3.

Council Training College for Men and Women. (*Day and Hostel Students.*)

8.0.	Breakfast.
9.30 to 1.0.	Lectures (with break)
1.0.	Dinner.
	Recreation (but four afternoons a week used for Drawing, Handwork, &c.).
4.0.	Tea.
	Recreation
6.30.	Study.
8.0.	Supper.

4.

Council Day Training College (*Men and Women*).

9.0	Prayers.
9.15 to 12.	Lectures (10 mins. break).
12.0.	Dinner.
2.0 to 4.0.	Lectures or Study.

b. TIME TABLE OF A RESIDENTIAL COUNCIL TRAINING

MORNING.

		8.50	9.30	10.10	10.50	11.45	12.25
Monday.	2nd yr.	*b.* Education *c.* Adv. Eng. (Shakespeare)	*a.* Education Phys. Trng.	*a.* Advanced English *c.*, *d.* Phys. Trng.	*c.*, *d.* Education	*a.*, *b.* Ordinary Music *c.*, *d.* Education	Adv. Music Ord. Maths. Biology (2)
	1st yr.	*a.*, *b.* English *c.* Biology *d.* History		Drawing History Education Biology	Phys. Trng.	*c.*, *d.* Education	Ord. Maths. Biology (2)
Tuesday.	2nd yr.	*a.*, *b.* Education	*a.*, *b.* *c.* Phys. Trng.	Advanced Maths. History		Advanced Geography Advanced Botany	
	1st yr.	*a.*, *b.* English Method *c.* Geography *d.* Demonstration Lessons	1. Practical Housecraft *or* 2. Biology		English	Education	Music
Wednesday.	2nd yr.	Practical Housecraft (1) Advanced Mathematics Biology (1) Ordinary Drawing		Advanced Drawing Ordinary Drawing		*b.*, *d.* Advanced English (Romantic Revival) *b.* Ordinary English *d.*	*c.* Education Handwork (1
	1st yr.	*a.*, *b.* Education *c.* Handwork *d.* Phys. Trng.	Geography Method Education	English Maths. Music *or* Maths.		Gardening Needlework Gardening	
Thursday.	2nd yr.	Practical Housecraft (2) Advanced Botany		Adv. Maths. Ord. Drawing (2) History		Handwork (3) Ordinary Drawing	Advanced Geography
	1st yr.	*a.*, *b.* Arithmetic Method *c.* Drawing *d.* English	History Handwork	Phys. Trng. Geography Drawing	Ord. Music	Geography Phys. Trng.	Drawing Phys Trng. Biology
Friday.	2nd yr.	History Advanced Geography Rural Science		*a.* Adv. Eng. *b.* Phys. Trng. *c.* Adv. Eng. (Shakespeare)	*a.* Phys. Trng. *b.* Ord. Eng. *d.* Ord. Eng.	Handwork (4) Ordinary Maths. Adv. Music	Adv. Music
	1st yr.	*a.* Drawing *b.* Phys. Trng. *c.* English *d.* Handwork	*a.* English	Geography Drawing Biology		Phys. Trng. Education Education Drawing	Education Relig. Instr. Drawing Education

The letters *a. b. c. d.* indicate different groups of students. Brackets show the occasions when two
Students' disposal for private study and recreation.

COLLEGE FOR WOMEN STUDENTS (1921–2).

AFTERNOON.

2.0	4.45	5.25	6.5	6.45	8.15
	a. Phys. Trng. *c.* *d.* Ord. Music	Ordinary Geography	*b.* *d.* Ad. Eng. (Romantic Revival) *b.* *d.* Ordinary English	Theory of Movement	
a.	1. Housecraft Demonstration *or* 2. Biology				Theory of Movement
b. *c.* *d.*	Geography	Adv. Maths. English Phys. Trng.	Biology Method	*b.* *c.* *d.* Music	
	2. Housecraft Demonstration Biology (1)				
	b. *d.* Advanced English (Romantic Revival)			*c.* *d.* Ord. Music	
Demonstration Lessons	Discussions		*c.* *d.* Education	*c.* History *d.* Relig. Instr.	Country Dancing
Gardening Advanced Drawing	*a.* Adv. Eng. (Shakespeare) Handwork (2) *c.* Advanced English *d.* Education		Biology (2)		Musical Society
	a. *b.* History *c.* *d.* History	Maths. Maths.	Handwork Adv. Maths. Homecraft English		Musical Society
	Choral	Biology (2) *a.* *b.* Ordinary Music	Ordinary Geography		Country Dancing
	Choral	*a.* Relig. Instr. *b.* Maths. *c.* History *d.* Maths.	Rural Science Adv. Maths. Relig. Instr. Rural Science	Maths. Method	
	Educational Handwork				
a. *b.* Needlework					
	c. Needlework *c.* *d.* Educational Drawing				

more groups are combined for purposes of instruction. Unappropriated periods are at the

c. ANALYSIS OF TIME-TABLE GIVEN ON PREVIOUS PAGES

	No. of Forty Minute Periods per week.	
	1st Year.	*2nd Year.*
PROFESSIONAL SUBJECTS.		
Education (including Psychology)	3	3
Students of Special Course A (Article 38 *a*) additional	—	1
Demonstration Lessons	2 hrs.*	—
Arithmetic Method	1	—
Hygiene	1	1
Physical Training	2	2
Advanced Students additional	—	1
Theory of Movement	1	1
Educational Handwork	3 (1 term)	3 (1 term)
Educational Drawing	3 ,,	3 ,,
Homecraft (for teachers under Art. 38 *c*)	3 ,,	—
Choral for all	1	1

	1st Year.	*2nd Year.*	
GENERAL SUBJECTS.			
Group A.		*Ord.*	*Adv.*
English (including Reading)	4	4	5
English Method	1	—	—
History	3	3	3†
History Method	1 (2 terms)	—	—
Geography	3	3	5
Geography Method	1 (2 terms)	—	—
Mathematics	3	3	5
Mathematics Method	2 (1 term)	—	—
Botany	—	—	5
Elementary Biology	4 (including Method)	—	—
General Biology	5	—	—
Science Method	1 (2 terms)	—	—
Group B.	*Ord.* *Adv.*		
Singing and Theory of Music (in addition to Choral for all)	2 4	2	3§
Drawing	3 5	3	5
Needlework and Handwork	6	2	—
Housecraft	7	—	7
Gardening and Rural Science	5	—	5

* Also 1 to 2 periods for discussion.
† With additional fortnightly tutorial classes, students in pairs.
§ With individual music lesson to each student every week.

6. EXAMPLES OF TRAINING COLLEGE RULES

(*a*) RESIDENTIAL COLLEGE FOR WOMEN

1. Leave must be obtained from the Hall Warden, the Sub-Warden, or, failing them, a senior Hall officer or the Senior Student, for the following :

(*a*) Visits to . . . or any other place involving a journey by rail.

(*b*) Being beyond the College grounds after 6 p.m. (8.15 p.m. on Sundays) in the winter terms, or 9.30 in the summer.

2. Students who are out of College for any meal should make an entry in the Absence Book.

3. All Visitors' names and addresses should be entered in the book provided ; and students wishing to receive men visitors, or to have other visitors to stay the night, should, on each occasion, consult the Warden.

4. Students making new acquaintances, other than members of the College, should let the Warden know.

If any student has been unable to comply with a regulation, she should explain to the Warden as soon as possible.

(*b*) RESIDENTIAL COLLEGE FOR MEN

1. GENERAL.

1. All applications for leave of absence from the College must be made to the Principal, who will provide a printed pass. This must be handed to the Vice-Principal before students leave, and they must report their return to him at the specified time.

2. If leave involves absence from any meal, the Dining Hall Monitor must be informed.

3. Smoking is not allowed in the Terrace or in any room or passage, except in the Common Room.

4. Books used in Lecture Rooms must be confined to the desks and shelves provided.

2. DORMITORIES.

1. The Dormitories are open on :

(*a*) Sundays at all times.

(*b*) Week-days, 7 a.m. to 9 a.m.
1 p.m. to 7 p.m.

Permission to go into the Dormitories at other times on week-days must be obtained from a Master.

2. (*a*) Students must go to their Dormitories immediately after Evening Chapel.

(*b*) No Student may leave his Dormitory without the permission of his Dormitory Prefect.

(*c*) A Student, belonging to one Dormitory, may not enter another Dormitory without the permission of a Master.

(*d*) In availing himself of a Master's permission to enter another

Dormitory, other than the Long Dormitory, a Student must not pass through the Long Dormitory.

(*e*) Every Student must be in his own Cubicle by ' lights out '.

3. Strict silence must be observed for the first five minutes when Students go to their Dormitories after Evening Chapel, during which time each Student must be in his own Cubicle.

4. Students must be quiet and orderly in the Dormitories at all times.

5. Students are expected to respond cheerfully to the control of their Prefects, and to support them in the performance of their duty.

6. Students must not walk in the Dormitories in dirty football boots, and every care must be taken to save labour, and to avoid damage to walls and partitions.

7. Nothing may be affixed to the walls or partitions except by the permission of the Principal.

8. (*a*) All Students will co-operate in having all windows and ventilators open at night.

(*b*) Before leaving his Cubicle, each Student must see that his window is left open and the water-tap fully turned off.

9. No lights of any kind are allowed other than those provided by the College.

3. Library. (*a*) Reference.

No book or paper may be removed from the Library without the sanction of the Librarian. An entry must then be made in the book provided for the purpose according to the instructions contained therein.

(*b*) Common Room.

Works of fiction, newspapers, and magazines will be found in the Common Room, whence they may not be removed except by permission of the Common Room Monitor.

4. Bathrooms.

These will be used according to arrangements made by the Curator.

7. FORM USED FOR REPORT ON SCHOOL PRACTICE (IN A MEN'S COLLEGE)

Name of Student..... Year .....
Name of School .....
Period of Practice..... No. of punctual Attendances.....
Class Taken..... No. of Pupils.....

I. Preparation of Work.

(*a*) Notes and Illustrations.
(Care and intelligence shown.)

(*b*) Apparatus, &c.
(Foresight, Adaptability, and Thoroughness.)

II. Teaching Power.

(*a*) Presentation of Matter.
(Blackboard Work, Questioning, Narrative.)

(*b*) Personal Characteristics as affecting teaching. (Manner, Language, Voice, Knowledge.)

III. Class Management.

(*a*) Powers of Control.
(*b*) Response of Class.
(*c*) Effectiveness.

IV. General Remarks.

V. Criticisms and Reports.

Class Letter (A to D).....Supervisor.

II.

SECONDARY AND DOMESTIC SUBJECTS TEACHERS

1. LIST OF SECONDARY TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

ENGLAND AND WALES

a. Training Departments of Universities and University Colleges (For Men and Women except where indicated)

Name of University or University College.	*Examinations prepared for.*
Oxford.	University Diploma in Education.
Cambridge (men only).	Cambridge Certificate of Theoretical and Practical Efficiency.
London :	
Day Training College.	Teacher's Diploma of London University (Internal).
King's College (men only).	Teacher's Diploma. London University (Internal).
Leeds.	Diploma of University.
Nottingham (University College)	Teacher's Diploma. London University (External).
	Cambridge Teacher's Certificate.
Reading (University College).	Cambridge Teacher's Certificate.
Birmingham.	Secondary Teacher's Diploma of University.
Durham (Armstrong College).	Diploma of University in Theory and Practice of Teaching.
Liverpool.	Diploma of University.
Exeter (University College).	Diploma. London University (External) and Cambridge Teacher's Certificate.
Manchester.	Teacher's Diploma of University.
Bristol.	Diploma of University.
Sheffield.	Diploma of University.
Southampton (University College).	Teacher's Diploma of London University (External) or Cambridge Certificate.
Aberystwyth. Bangor. Cardiff.	Teacher's Certificate of University of Wales. Cambridge Teacher's Certificate. Diploma of London University (External). Diploma of College of Preceptors.

b. TRAINING COLLEGES PROVIDED BY OTHER BODIES

(For Women only)

Name.	*Examinations prepared for.*
Cambridge Women's.	Cambridge Certificate. Teacher's Diploma of London University (External).
St. Mary's, Lancaster Gate.	Teacher's Diploma of London University (Internal) or Cambridge Certificate.
London, Brondesbury, Maria Grey.	Teacher's Diploma of London University (Internal).
Clapham High School.	Teacher's Diploma of London University (Internal) or Cambridge Certificate.
Catholic Training College, Cavendish Square.	Cambridge Teacher's Certificate.

2. DIPLOMA COURSES FOR SECONDARY TEACHERS

	Subjects.	*Special Features in Course or Examination.*
Oxford University.	1. The Theory of Education and Educational Method. 2. History of Education. (*a*) In Europe from earliest times. (*b*) Lives and work of eminent teachers. Educational ideas and systems (including contemporary). (*c*) A special period, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; eighteenth century or nineteenth and twentieth centuries. 3. The teaching of one special subject. (Choice of four languages, History, Geography, English Language and Literature, Mathematics, two Sciences.)	1. Courses cover three academic Terms and include: (*a*) Attendance at lectures . . . and where Regulations so provide, the writing of a thesis upon an approved subject. (*b*) Practical work in an approved school or schools. Must obtain a Certificate that Course has been duly completed. 2. There is also: (*a*) A written examination and (*b*) The student must produce a Certificate from the Head of an approved School to the effect that he is efficient as a Teacher and as a Disciplinarian.
Cambridge University.	1. Psychology of Education. 2. History of Education. 3. General method, School Management, and Discipline. 4. Educational Administration. 5. School Hygiene, Phonetics. 6. The Teaching of History, Geography, English, and Science.	1. Written Examination. 2. Practical Test in Teaching. 3. Account is taken of work done in the schools.
London University (Internal).	1. Principles of Education. 2. Methodology, General and Special. 3. History of Education.	

	Subjects.	*Special Features in Course or Examination.*
Liverpool University.	1. Principles of Education. 2. Methods of Instruction. 3. Physiology and School Hygiene. 4. The special study of a selected subject of school instruction, in relation to the methods employed in teaching it. 5. A prescribed period in the history of educational theory and practice.	1. Written Examination—Thesis. 2. Examiners must be satisfied with : (*a*) Notes and records of teaching. (*b*) The reports of Principals of schools and of University Teachers. (*c*) The candidate's teaching, including a lesson or lessons given in the presence of an external examiner.
Sheffield University.	1. History, Theory, and Practice of Education. 2. Experimental Education.	1. Written Examination. 2. Practical Tests. 3. Students' records. 4. Report of Head Teacher.
Manchester University.	1. The Principles of Education. 2. Methods of Teaching. 3. Educational Psychology. 4. The Physical Life of School Children and School Hygiene.	1. Written Examination. 2. Practical Examination. (For details see pp. 425–7.)
Leeds University.	1. Principles and Methods of Education and Teaching. 2. Educational Psychology (with laboratory practice). 3. History of Education (with selected works). 4. Physical Development of Child and School Hygiene. 5. Phonetics and Voice Production. 6. Practice in Teaching.	1. Each student must prepare a Thesis on the method of teaching some selected subject. 2. All students take a laboratory course of experimental psychology as applied to education. 3. Practice in teaching includes visits to various types of schools in the district and a Practical Test.
Bristol University.	1. Principles of Education, psychological and moral. 2. School organization and management. Methods of Instruction. Physical aspects of school life. 3. Either : (*a*) History of Education, or (*b*) Social study in its educational bearings. 4. Practice of Teaching.	1. Diploma awarded on written work done throughout the Course. 2. Under 4, a satisfactory report required upon a year's practical work. 3. Study and examination in an Art or Craft may be substituted for 3—the examination to be theoretical and practical.
Birmingham University.	1. Principles and Practice of Education. 2. Special method of Teaching various school subjects. 3. Educational Psychology.	1. Written examination — three papers. 2. Thesis written during the year on the methods of teaching some one subject.

	Subjects.	*Special Features in Course or Examination.*
Birmingham University. (contd.)	4. History of Education and Phonetics.	3. Practical Test in Teaching. 4. Satisfactory report on Practical work during the year.
Durham University.	1. Principles of Education, including the applications of Psychology, Ethics, and Logic. 2. The History of Education (a prescribed period). 3. General Methods of Teaching. 4. Hygiene and the Theory of Physical Exercises. 5. Methods of Teaching a definite branch of the curriculum of a Secondary School.	
University of Wales.	1. Theory of Education. 2. History of Education. 3. School organization, curriculum and hygiene. 4. Methodology — including any special lectures given to the department. 5. Special study of the teaching of two ordinary school subjects.	Certificate after : 1. One year's practical teaching, recorded and attested. 2. Essay or special study. 3. Examination, including a model lesson.

3. UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE TEACHERS' TRAINING SYNDICATE

SYLLABUS OF EXAMINATIONS FOR 1922

THEORETICAL EXAMINATION

1. The subjects of Examination in Theoretical work will be : Papers I and II. Principles of Education.

(1) The aims of education and the functions of the school.

(*a*) The chief types of schools in the British Isles ; their relations to the needs of the community.

The relations of schools of different types to one another and to institutions for higher education.

(*b*) The principles determining the curriculum in different types of schools with respect to (i) the scope and general character of the instruction, and (ii) the relations between the different subjects.

(2) Education in relation to psychical development.

(*a*) Chief elements of endowment and their significance in life. Interaction of endowment and environment: general nature of experience: characteristics of chief phases of development.

(*b*) Processes involved in the acquirement of bodily skill.

(*c*) Relations of learning to bodily activity, to interest, and to purpose: attention.

(*d*) Chief types of learning and of critical thinking: their characteristics at successive ages.

(*e*) Conditions of valid inference and of systematic knowledge.

(*f*) Nature of aesthetic appreciation: conditions favourable to its development.

(*g*) The development and training of the emotional nature in relation to purpose.

(*h*) Phases of moral growth and conditions favourable to it: principles of disciplinary interference with free development: conscience and character.

(3) School Government and discipline.

(*a*) Nature of corporate life and modes of promoting it: school societies and other organized groups.

(*b*) Disciplinary organization in school and class.

(i) Characteristics of class as a unit: general principles of class management: order and discipline: class life as aiding development.

(ii) Laws and rules: their character and enforcement.

(iii) Modes of stimulus and restraint: marks, promotion, rewards, punishments: treatment of common offences and of pupils of divergent temperaments.

(iv) Functions of head and assistant teachers: prefects: forms of self-government by school community.

(v) Relation of school to home: reports: home lessons.

(vi) Day and boarding schools in relation to leisure time of pupils.

(4) General principles of methodical instruction.

(*a*) Forms of instruction suitable to different ages of pupils, and in different types of subjects and lessons.

(*b*) Sequence and correlation of lessons and groups of lessons.

(*c*) Characteristics of exposition and questioning: modes of directing practical work and private study: illustrations.

(*d*) Use of blackboard and of other general class-room apparatus.

(*e*) Correction of exercises.

(*f*) Relations of class work to individual work: recognition of individual differences in learning: encouragement of individual origination and effort.

(*g*) Place and value of formal exercises.

(*h*) Tests and records of progress: internal and external examinations.

(5) Hygiene of school life.

(*a*) General conditions of healthy life and growth: characteristics of successive stages of physical development.

(*b*) Functions, forms, and organization, of games, free play, recreation, and physical exercise.

(*c*) Hygienic conditions of school life: ventilation, lighting, desks, &c.

(*d*) Detection and avoidance of fatigue and over-pressure.

(*e*) Detection of the more evident forms of defect and disease.

Paper III. History of Education.

The subject should be treated broadly, emphasis being laid on general social and intellectual movements, ideals of culture and their effect upon schools and universities, the development of educational administration, curriculum, school-buildings, and school-books. The ideas of past educational reformers should be studied in so far as they illustrate by criticism and positive suggestions the educational thought and practice of their times.

The paper will consist of twelve questions, nine in section A and three in section B, of which candidates are to answer not more than six questions. Section A is intended to meet the requirements of candidates who simply desire to pass in the History of Education; Section B affords opportunity for those who aim at a higher class or at distinction in this subject.

In 1922 and 1923 Section A will be confined to the History of Education in England during the nineteenth century; Section B to the education work of (*a*) John Locke and (*b*) Thomas Arnold, in relation to the history of Education during their time.

A Training College may present for the approval of the Syndicate a course of illustrative reading alternative to the above selected authors; some of this reading must fall outside the chosen period. If the course be approved, on payment of an extra fee a special paper thereon will be set to the candidates from that College.

Paper IV. Practice of Education (Teaching of special subjects).

(i) The questions will be grouped according to subject, and each group will contain five or six questions. The 'A' questions in each group will be, in the main, questions for form teachers; the 'B' questions will be of a more advanced type intended for specialists.

(ii) Candidates must not attempt more than six questions, of which not less than two shall be from any one group.

(iii) Candidates for endorsement as specialist teachers will be expected to answer 'B' questions only, and not more than four questions need be attempted; a higher standard of marking will be adopted in their case.

(iv) The following will be the groups:

I. (*a*) Latin and (*b*) Greek.
II. (*c*) French and (*d*) German.
III. (*e*) English Language and Literature.
IV. (*f*) History.
V. (*g*) Geography.
VI. (*h*) Mathematics.
VII. (*i*) Physics and (*j*) Chemistry.
VIII. (*k*) Botany, (*l*) Zoology, and (*m*) Nature Study.
IX. (*n*) Bible Teaching.

(v) The examiner, when examining in Practical Efficiency those candidates who ask for endorsement as specialist teachers under Sections (iii) and (iv) of the regulations for this paper, will be informed that he is examining specialist teachers.

PRACTICAL EXAMINATION.

1. Candidates for the Examination in Practical Efficiency who are not members of a recognized Training College, *must have been engaged for a year in some school or schools recognized for this purpose by the Syndicate.* They will be required to submit notes of lessons and to give a lesson, usually in the school in which they are engaged, in the presence of the examiner appointed by the Syndicate. A report made by the Head Master or Mistress, which will be taken into account by the Examiner, will be required.

2. Candidates who claim endorsement of their certificates as provided for under (iii), (iv), (v) of the regulations for Paper IV will be required to prepare notes of three lessons in their special subject, and to give a lesson in that subject.

4. UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER

THE TEACHER'S DIPLOMA

REGULATIONS

1. All candidates for the Teacher's Diploma are required :

(1) To have graduated (or passed the final examination for a degree) in this or some other approved University before entering on the course.

(2) To have pursued a course of training approved by the University extending over at least one academic year.

(3) To have satisfied the Examiners in both the written and the practical parts of the Examination.

Every student will be expected to study one or more additional or supplementary subjects, the selection being determined by the special needs of each student's course of training.

SUBJECTS OF STUDY

2. The following subjects will be studied by all students unless exempted by the Faculty :

(1) The Principles of Education.

(2) Methods of Teaching.

(3) Educational Psychology.

(4) The Physical Life of School Children and School Hygiene.

EXAMINATION FOR THE TEACHER'S DIPLOMA

3. (1) The examination will consist of two parts, to which equal importance will be attached.

(*a*) Examination Papers on each of the four subjects under 2 above. Under certain conditions an essay or essays on approved subjects may be accepted in lieu of a written examination in any of these subjects.

b) A practical examination, in which the candidates' teaching ability will be judged :

(i) From the reports on their work in teaching during this period of training.
(ii) From one or more lessons given before the Examiners.
(iii) From the candidates' written records of the work they have done during their periods of school practice.

(2) The names of candidates who have been awarded the Diploma will be arranged in two classes. Candidates of the first class who have attained a specially high standard in both parts of the examination will be awarded distinction.

BOARD OF EDUCATION CERTIFICATE

Students who have been awarded the Diploma will be recommended for the Teacher's Certificate of the Board of Education. Other students may be so recommended if their work during the session and in the examination is of sufficient merit. In the case of students showing special proficiency in Drawing or Handwork the Certificates may be endorsed accordingly.

LECTURE AND DEMONSTRATION COURSES IN THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION

N.B. The Students taking the Diploma Course are divided as follows : Students preparing specially for work : (*a*) in Secondary Schools, (*b*) in Elementary Schools, (*c*) with Young Children, (*d*) in Day Continuation Schools, (*e*) in Schools for the Deaf. Students are free to choose which of the above groups they join, subject to certain conditions.

Course I. For all groups.
An outline course on the principles of education, including the origin and purposes of educational institutions, the corporate life of schools, school management, and principles underlying school curricula.

Course II. Groups (*a*) and (*b*).
The administration of education. Five lectures.

Course III. Groups (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*e*).
The History of Modern Education, with special reference to English Education in the Nineteenth Century.

Course IV. All groups.
Educational Psychology and Method.

Course V. All groups.
The Physical Life of School Children and School Hygiene.

Course VI. All groups.
Methods of teaching. Lectures, demonstrations, visits, open lessons, and discussions.

Course VII. Groups (*b*), (*c*), (*e*).
Blackboard Illustration.

Course VIII. Groups (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), (*e*).
Physical Training.

Course IX. Groups (*b*), (*c*).
Speech Training.

Course X. Group (*a*).
Lectures on the Organization and Management of Secondary Schools. (Miss Burstall.)

Course XI. Groups (*a*), (*b*), (*d*).
Four Lectures on School Discipline. (Mr. Paton.)

Course XII. Optional.
A short course of lectures on the Teaching of the Bible. (Dr. Mark.)

Course XIII. Groups (*a*), (*b*), (*d*), (*e*).
Psychology of Adolescence and Experimental Psychology. (Professor Pear.)

Course XIV. Optional.
The Philosophy of Education.

Course XV. Group (*d*).
Social Economics. (Professor Clay.)

Course XVI. Group (*d*).
Social and Economic History. (Professor Unwin.)

5. UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

EXAMINATION IN THE THEORY, HISTORY, AND PRACTICE OF EDUCATION (DECEMBER 1921)

Paper I

(Not less than Four or more than Six questions should be attempted. At least One from each section)

A.

1. With what justice can it be said that we have not in this country a national system of education ?

2. Are there any dangers involved in making good citizenship the aim of an educational system ?

3. What evil effects has the doctrine of formal training had on educational theory ?

4. ' Education must be divided into the training of the will (morals), the training of the intellect (science), and the training of the emotions (expressive or creative art).'
Discuss this division of the function of education.

B.

5. On what grounds would you maintain that the study of suggestion was the most important part of psychology for the teacher ?

6. How would you define an instinct ? Would you agree that the sublimation of the instincts is the aim of education ?

7. ' The doctrine of association of ideas, in spite of the difficulties which it involves, cannot be neglected by the educationist.' Discuss this statement.

8. ' The human being has its stages of growth and needs an education appropriate to these stages.' Explain and discuss.

C.

9. ' The statement that a principle is sound in theory but will not work in practice only means that the application of the principle to details has not been sufficiently elaborated in theory.' Discuss this with reference to educational theory and practice.

10. What theoretical objections are there to the multiplication of specialist teachers ?

11. Can spontaneity be taught as well as habits ?

12. How far can the doctrine that truth is the outcome of discussion be realized in education ?

Paper III

(Not fewer than Four or more than Six questions should be answered ; not less than One or more than Two from Section A)

A.

1. Make suggestions for the introduction into the Time-Table of a Secondary School of one hour each day for individual work at subjects of the Pupils' own choosing.

2. What fundamental objections, if any, do you see to the placing of the discipline of a school on a democratic basis in place of the usual system of monitors nominated by the Head ? Work out the details of an organization, going as far as seems to you possible in the democratic direction.

3. ' The best remedy for an overcrowded curriculum is simply to drop out certain subjects for a year or two.' Apply this suggestion to the curriculum for boys or girls (specifying the range of ages), and state whether you think the result would justify the principle.

4. Describe what you consider to be the ideal plan and equipment of two of the following : (*a*) A general class-room for children not exceeding the age of ten, (*b*) a special room for the teaching of either history or geography to several classes of various ages from twelve to eighteen, (*c*) the gymnasium of a secondary school.

5. Critics of ' mental tests ' maintain that many of the current examples are mere catches, and that others are disguised tests of knowledge. Do you think this true ? If so, give examples (*a*) of tests which are open to this objection, (*b*) of genuine tests of native ability.

6. Do you consider it desirable that each school should have a master or mistress specially engaged for the organization and supervision of games ? If so, what should be their qualifications ?

B.

7. ' Every system of phonetic symbols should be based on the principles of " one sound, one symbol ".' Is it possible, on this principle, to construct satisfactorily a single system of symbols for the purpose of insuring correct pronunciation in English and in Modern Languages ?

8. ' Among the older boys the favourite author is Dickens. Possibly the fact that I am myself a devoted Dickensian has its influence.' What would be your own aims and practice with regard to the question of imparting your own literary tastes to your pupils ?

9. 'There comes a time when the pupil must be left to his own devices in preparing for a lesson in the translation of a Greek or Latin author.' At what stage should this occur? Up to that point what sort of preliminary assistance should be given beforehand in school?

10. Outline a scheme of Elementary Science for pupils of twelve to fourteen years of age who will be proceeding to a full course, some of Physics and Chemistry, others of Botany and Zoology, from the ages of fourteen to sixteen.

11. A class of boys or girls at a Secondary School has one hour a week assigned to practical outdoor illustrations of Mathematics. How would you utilize it? Specify the average age of pupils.

12. To what extent do you consider it an advantage that modern languages should be taught by natives of the countries where they are spoken?

13. Assuming that a school can have a specialist teacher of History or Geography, but not both, which subject do you think would lose less by being taught by a non-specialist? Give reasons for your answer.

14. At what age do you consider that the study of formal grammar should be begun? Should it be first taught in connexion with English or with a foreign language?

15. What educational benefit would you expect a pupil to derive from a course of Eurhythmics?

6. UNIVERSITY OF SHEFFIELD

EXAMINATIONS FOR DIPLOMA STUDENTS AND DEGREE STUDENTS WHO TAKE EDUCATION AS PRIMARY SUBJECT

EDUCATION I

History and Social Theory

(Answer Six questions, Three from each section)

Section A.

1. Describe the best educational practice in elementary schools as they were at the close of the eighteenth century.

2. Who were the chief advocates of reformed methods of teaching in the earlier phases of nineteenth-century education? Indicate the general trend of the newer attitude towards the function of teaching.

3. What was the general position in the matter of the control of elementary education in England about 1840?

4. What were the difficulties in introducing a system of graded classes in the elementary schools? How were these overcome?

5. What do you consider were the main provisions of the Act of 1870? It is sometimes described as the first of the series of great English Education Acts. Justify this by reference to previous and later legislation.

6. Give an account of the findings of the Bryce Commission. How far did the report of this commission affect subsequent policy?

Section B.

7. Briefly examine the nature and purpose of modern community life, and the part which educational institutions should play therein.

8. ' It is more important that our pupils should like what they are learning, than that they should be compelled to learn what they actively dislike.' Examine this view both in its theoretical implications and in its practical outcome as it affects the schools.

9. Describe the part a school may play in establishing a ' sense of honour ' in its pupils, indicating as clearly as possible the psychological nature of a ' sense of honour ' and the undesirable characteristics which may distinguish an actually operative ' sense of honour '.

10. What is ' sympathy ' ? Show the psychological importance of active sympathy, and discuss the view that ' active sympathy ' between pupil and teacher is not usually possible.

11. Show as concretely as you can why the study of the emotional life, its origins, and its development is so important to the schoolmaster.

12. Give a psychological account of the nature and development of conscience.

EDUCATION IV

Experimental Inquiries

(Candidates must answer not more than six questions)

1. Contrast examinations and mental tests as means for determining which pupils in the elementary schools are deserving of scholarships to secondary schools.

2. Explain the significance of the coefficient of correlation. Suggest uses for the method in reference to ordinary school work.

3. Plan a research, using the method of equal groups, either to test the value of the use of phonetics in the first year of French, or to compare the value of the usual oral method of teaching ' simple interest ' with the method of leaving the children to learn by private study from printed explanation.

4. What light do experiments on fatigue throw upon the arrangement of the time-table ? Show explicitly what inferences are fully justifiable.

5. Estimate the value of experimental investigations upon the methods of teaching reading.

6. Give the evidence of experimental investigations as to the ways in which children actually learn to spell. What practical inferences can you make ?

7. State the evidence of experiments on memory as to the doctrine of formal training. To what extent can one base a general theory as to mental training upon the results of investigations as to one function, e. g. memory ?

8. Describe exactly the way in which an inspector could ascertain with a fair degree of accuracy the effectiveness of the teaching of arithmetic in a particular school.

9. What advice would you give to a school dramatic society on how to memorize their parts in plays ? Support your advice with evidence.

10. Describe and critically examine any scale devised for measuring general intelligence.

7. RECOGNIZED TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS OF DOMESTIC SUBJECTS

Place.	*Name.*	*Date of Establishment.*	*Established by*	*Responsible Authority.*
London (Westminster)	National Training School of Cookery	1874	Committee (at South Kensington until 1889)	Executive Committee.
Leeds	Yorkshire Training College of Housecraft	1874	Yorkshire Ladies' Council of Education	Leeds Education Authority.
Liverpool	F. L. Calder College of Domestic Science	1875	Committee of Voluntary Workers	Liverpool Education Authority (since 1920).
Leicester	Domestic Science Training College	1877	,, ,,	Leicester Education Authority.
Manchester	Municipal Training College of Domestic Economy	1880	,, ,,	Manchester Education Authority (since 1906).
Sheffield	Training College of Domestic Subjects	1889	City Council	Sheffield Education Authority
Gloucester	Gloucestershire School of Domestic Science	1890	Gloucestershire County Council	Gloucestershire Education Authority.
Newcastle-on-Tyne	Northern Counties Training College of Cookery and Domestic Science	1893	County and City Councils	Education Authorities of Northumberland, Durham, and of Newcastle-on-Tyne.
London (Hampstead)	(Berridge House) Training College for Teachers of Domestic Subjects	1893	National Society (at Lambeth)	National Society.
Bristol	Municipal Training College of Domestic Subjects	1893	City Council	Bristol Education Authority.
Bath	(Municipal Technical College) Training College for Teachers of Domestic Subjects	1894	Borough Council	Bath Education Authority.
London (Battersea)	(Polytechnic) Domestic Science Training College	1894	(With assistance from London County Council)	Board of Governors.
Cardiff	Training School of Domestic Arts for South Wales and Monmouthshire	—	City Council	Council of University College of South Wales, in association with Education Authorities of Cardiff, Merthyr, Swansea, Glamorganshire, and Monmouthshire.

Note.—Several other institutions giving instruction in Domestic Subjects have at different times been recognized by the Board for the training of teachers, such as the Clapham High School, Schools of Cookery at Brighton, Eastbourne, Lewes, Norwich, Preston, Shrewsbury, Southport, Trowbridge, and the Polytechnic Institutes at Chelsea, Holloway, and Woolwich.

APPENDIX C

FINANCE AND STATISTICS

I. FINANCE

1. Accounts of typical Voluntary Training Colleges.
2. Accounts of University Training Departments.
3. Building Grants to Training Colleges (England and Wales).
4. Scotland. National Committee for the Training of Teachers. Extracts from Abstract of Income and Expenditure, 1920–1 and 1921–2.
5. Notes on Salaries of Teachers in Schools and Training Colleges.
6. Kent Education Committee. Scheme for a system of Loans and Grants to Students.

II. STATISTICS

1. Number of adult Teachers employed in Public Elementary Schools in England and Wales, 1870–1920.
2. Number of Intending Teachers in England and Wales, 1906–20.
3. Development of Training System, 1850–1920.
4. Staffs of Training Institutions.
5. Special Subjects. Increase in Centres and Schools in which instruction was given, 1909–20.
6. Domestic Science Training Schools. Number of Students, 1909–20.
7. Certificate Examination for Acting Teachers in Elementary Schools—England and Wales. Summary of Results, 1908–21.

I. FINANCE

1. ACCOUNTS OF TYPICAL VOLUNTARY TRAINING COLLEGES

a. Women's College, Undenominational. (*Year ending* 31 *July* 1921.) 152 *Students.*

SUMMARY OF RECEIPTS.

	£	s.	d.
B. of E. grant	10,285	0	0
Students' fees	2,595	0	0
Students' fees for Books	487	10	7
Voluntary Contributions	306	0	0
Deficit	5,811	0	10
	£19,484	11	5

SUMMARY OF PAYMENTS.

	£	s.	d.
Adverse Balance	3,681	15	3
Salaries of Teachers	4,655	6	6
Books, apparatus, &c.	702	4	0
Administration	215	14	3
Board and Washing	3,893	13	1
Salaries (non-teaching) and Wages	1,296	15	3
Fuel, Light, &c.	1,183	17	9
Medical Attendance	100	12	4
Furniture, Repairs, Grounds, Rates, &c.	3,548	18	4
Rent	77	0	0
School Practice	70	18	11
Other payments	57	15	9
	£19,484	11	5

b. R.C. Training College for Men. (*Year ending* 31 *July* 1920.) 123 *Students.*

SUMMARY OF RECEIPTS.

	£	s.	d.
B. of E. grant	7,229	5	9
Students' Fees	1,157	17	4
Grant—Catholic Education Council	526	1	0
Other Receipts	130	5	0
Bank Overdraft	1,829	12	6
	£10,873	1	7

SUMMARY OF PAYMENTS.

	£	s.	d.
Bank overdraft, 1 August 1919	856	0	0
Salaries of Teachers	2,329	3	3
Other Salaries and Wages	1,263	14	0
Administration	163	16	1
Maintenance of Premises	1,635	18	3
Household Expenses	4,414	5	0
Miscellaneous Payments	210	5	0
	£10,873	1	7

c. C.E. Training College for Women. (*Year ending* 31 *July* 1921.) 118 *Students.*

SUMMARY OF RECEIPTS.

	£	s.	d.
Balance in Treasurer's hands	50	0	0
B. of E. Grant	8,033	13	4
Students' Fees	2,138	0	0
Grant from Central Church Fund	500	0	0
Other Receipts	255	9	4
Balance due to Bank, 31 July 1921	2,634	17	8
	£13,612	0	4

SUMMARY OF PAYMENTS.

	£	s.	d.
Balance due to Bank, 1 August 1920	1,248	2	9
Salaries of Teachers	3,615	9	2
Other Salaries and Wages	1,364	6	4
Administration	171	9	5
Maintenance of Premises	3,005	6	2
Household Expenses	3,988	9	2
Miscellaneous Payments	168	17	4
In Treasurer's hands	50	0	0
	£13,612	0	4

2. ACCOUNTS OF UNIVERSITY TRAINING DEPARTMENTS

(*a*) CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY TEACHERS' TRAINING SYNDICATE

Training College Account, 1920–1 (to 30 *September*).

Receipts.	£	s.	d.	Payments.	£	s.	d.
Grants from Board of Education:				Balance overdrawn 1 Oct. 1920	1,381	19	3
For Training College	1,372	13	4	Salaries: Teaching Staff	1,216	1	0
For Tuition	3,267	0	0	Tuition Fees paid to Colleges in respect of Students	3,310	0	4
	4,639	13	4	Expenses of Administration	270	0	10
Fees of Students	518	5	0	Expenses of Maintenance (Servants, Rent, and Maintenance)	348	0	7
Grant from University Board of Finance	75	0	0	Household Expenses	305	2	8
Interest on Deposit Account	17	12	8	Medical Officer	36	15	0
Warkworth House (for Board and Lodging)	165	14	2	Bank Charges	4	16	8
Balance overdrawn 30 September 1921	1,456	11	2				
	£6,872	16	4		£6,872	16	4

(*b*) BIRMINGHAM UNIVERSITY TRAINING DEPARTMENT

Balance Sheet, 1920–1 (*Summarized*).

Receipts.	£	s.	d.	Expenditure.	£	s.	d.
Grants from Board of Education:				Salaries of Teaching Staff (whole and part time)	5,723	11	11
For Council (Tuition, Supervision, &c.)	11,183	19	2	Other expenses in respect of Tuition and Instruction	1,099	6	3
For Students 9,132 19 0				Administration	527	6	7
In hand from previous year 154 1 1				Maintenance of Premises	1,103	8	2
	9,287	0	1	Medical Expenses	50	0	0
For Ex-Service Students 837 1 0				Grants paid to Students 8,765 0 1			
In hand from previous year 152 9 0				in hand 522 0 0	9,287	0	1
	989	10	0	to ex-Service Students 925 13 2			
Fees	1,258	14	0	in hand 63 16 10	989	10	0
Endowment	140	0	0	Rent, Alterations, and Additions to Premises	1,761	15	7
Interest and Income Tax Refund	215	5	11	Payments to University Club	161	14	0
				Balance transferred to General Income Account of the University	2,370	16	7
	£23,074	9	2		£23,074	9	2

3. GRANTS TO TRAINING COLLEGES (ENGLAND AND WALES) FOR BUILDING AND ENLARGING PREMISES AND FOR RENT [1]

Financial Year.	*Grant for Provision of Premises.*	*Grants in Aid of Rent.*	*Total.*
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
To 1864	118,627 7 9	—	118,627 7 9
1906–7	19,500 0 0	—	19,500 0 0
1907–8	45,000 0 0	—	45,000 0 0
1908–9	59,965 14 9	567 16 6	60,533 11 3
1909–10	58,418 11 6	1,658 11 6	60,077 3 0
1910–11	78,624 1 6	3,238 5 3	81,862 6 9
1911–12	91,343 1 11	2,153 12 11	93,496 14 10
1912–13	93,313 15 4	3,198 3 1	96,511 18 5
1913–14	95,102 16 9	1,738 14 1	96,841 10 10
1914–15	84,666 0 0	—	84,666 0 0
1915–16	45,087 0 0	—	45,087 0 0
1916–17	9,843 0 0	—	9,843 0 0
1917–18	1,845 0 0	—	1,845 0 0
1918–19	—	453 0 0	453 0 0
1919–20	—	310 0 0	310 0 0
	£801,336 9 6	£13,318 3 4	£814,654 12 10

4. SCOTLAND

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

a. Approximate Cost per Student in Training (1920–1 *and* 1921–2).[2]

	Number of Students.		*Gross Cost per Student.*	
	1920–1	1921–2	1920–1	1921–2
			£ s. d.	£ s. d.
TRAINING CENTRES.				
St. Andrews and Dundee	102	116	162 9 1	140 4 0
Glasgow	687	1,017	71 18 11	36 5 3
Aberdeen	395	410	64 13 7	55 9 3
Edinburgh	574	707	65 3 5	49 14 8
TRAINING COLLEGES.				
Craiglockhart, R. C. (Edinburgh)	58	79	71 1 7	45 8 1
Episcopal Training College (Edinburgh)	67	55	64 8 11	67 6 0
Notre Dame R.C. (Glasgow)	183	174	61 15 4	47 15 10
Dunfermline College of Hygiene	—	55	— — —	80 12 9
Total Number of Students	2,066	2,613		
Average Cost for all Centres and Colleges { Gross			71 19 6	50 3 4
Average Cost for all Centres and Colleges { Net			65 2 7	40 0 2

[1] For total amount of grant to 1864 see *Board of Education Special Reports*, vol. ii, p. 528. For figures from 1906–7 to 1912–13 see *Board of Education Report*, 1912–13, p. 164; for subsequent years see Annual Reports of Board of Education.

[2] National Committee for the Training of Teachers, Central Executive Committee. *Abstract of Income and Expenditure . . .* for Year to 31 July 1921, pp. 18–21, and to 31 July 1922, pp. 14–17.

SCOTLAND

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

b. Summary of First Annual Statement of Accounts, 1920–1.[1]

Income.	£	s.	d.
Contributions from L.E.A.'s under Section 9 (3) of the Education (Scotland) Act of 1918	144,756	0	0
Grants from Scottish Education Dept. Balances for previous years and instalments for current year	137,255	13	0
Fees of Students	25,174	1	5
Sale of Buildings	13,500	0	0
Interest on Loans, Bank Interest, &c.	2,396	0	5
Income from other sources, e.g. Sale of Books, Repayment by Students, &c.	726	2	11
	£323,787	17	9

Expenditure.	£	s.	d.
Balances overdrawn on various accounts 1 August 1920	10,234	11	2
Expenses of Central Executive Committee (Administration)	6,449	19	6
Sites and Buildings	113,711	1	11½
Training Account	134,911	18	6
Rent Account	1,306	18	0
Demonstration Schools Account	18,477	6	2½
Hostels Account	7,863	14	7½
Classes for further Instruction of Teachers	5,725	5	2½
Balance in Hand 31 July 1921	25,107	2	7
	£323,787	17	9

5. NOTES ON SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS AND TRAINING COLLEGES

Prior to the Education Act, 1902, salaries of teachers varied from school to school, but the tendency under the larger School Boards was towards more uniform rates of payment for teachers possessing the same qualifications. From 1902 onwards the method of payment according to scales of salary was adopted by most Local Education Authorities, but competition between them became so acute, especially in the early years of the war, that it was generally agreed that a settlement of the salary question on something approaching a national basis had become necessary.

I. DEPARTMENTAL COMMITTEES

In 1918 the Board of Education appointed a Departmental Committee ' for enquiring into the principles which should determine the construction of scales of salary for teachers in Elementary Schools ', with Sir Harry Stephen as Chairman. The Report (Cd. 8939) and Summaries of Evidence (Cd. 8999), published in 1918, provided a comprehensive survey of existing methods and rates of payment, and suggested principles for the construction of revised scales of salary. Typical scales were also given.

A second Departmental Committee was also appointed ' for enquiring into the principles which should determine the fixing of salaries for

[1] National Committee . . . *Abstract of Income and Expenditure*, pp. 2–5.

teachers in Secondary and Technical Schools, Schools of Art, Training Colleges and other institutions for Higher Education (other than University institutions)'. The Report (Cd. 9140) and Summaries of Evidence (Cd. 9168) were published in 1918.

II. THE BURNHAM COMMITTEES

1. *Elementary Teachers.*

In 1919 the President of the Board of Education appointed a Standing Joint Committee, consisting of an equal number of representatives of Local Education Authorities and of the National Union of Teachers, to consider the possibility of drafting a provisional minimum scale of salaries for teachers in Public Elementary Schools. The Chairman was Lord Burnham, and the first Report (Cd. 443) was published on 21 November 1919. Some of the principles laid down by the Departmental Committee of the previous year were adopted. Recommendations were made that (*a*) Schools should be graded according to size, (*b*) Teachers should be paid according to qualifications and experience, (*c*) Certain standard rates of payment should be adopted as minima.

In June 1920 the Committee published a Supplementary Report on the salaries of Teachers of Handicraft.

In October 1920 the Committee issued a further Report setting forth three standard scales (known as Scales II, III, and IV) higher than the Provisional Minimum Scale of the first report, for areas in which the latter was rejected as inacceptable. In December 1920 another Report was issued setting forth Standard Scale I as agreed to by the Committee.

In June 1921 the Board of Education issued the Report of the Burnham Committee upon the Schedule of Standard Scales of Salaries for Teachers in Public Elementary Schools appropriate to Local Education Authorities, in which the Committee stated that they had invited and received from the majority of the Local Education Authorities in England and Wales provisional agreements between themselves and the teachers as to the scales which they considered appropriate to their respective areas. In areas where no such agreements could be arrived at the allocation of appropriate scales was left to the decision of the Committee.

The following table[1] gives the number of areas to which Standard Scales were allocated in 1921, and the scales actually adopted by 31 March 1922.

Number of Areas.

Scale.	*Allocated 1921.*	*Scales adopted 31 March 1922.*					
		P.M.S.	*I.*	*II.*	*III.*	*IV.*	*other Scales.*
I.	28	13	14	—	—	—	1
II.	74	19	—	55	—	—	—
III.	187	10	—	10	162	—	5
IV.	28	—	—	—	3	24	1
Total	317	42	14	65	165	24	7

[1] *B. of E. Report*, 1921–2, p. 22.

Notes. (i) In some areas the allocations have not been considered satisfactory either by the Local Authority or the teachers, and no agreement has been arrived at. In December 1922 thirty Local Education Authorities were still paying salaries in accordance with the Provisional Minimum Scale.[1]

(ii) By Circular 1219 in July 1921 the Board of Education ruled that variations from the Standard Scales which involved additional expenditure would not be approved for purposes of grant.

(iii) The Board of Education required a method of introducing the scales known as the 'Carry-over' whereby the increased expenditure was extended over a period of three years. (Circular 1222, July 1921.)

(2) *Secondary Teachers.*

For Secondary Schools a similar Committee was appointed in 1920, also with Lord Burnham as Chairman, representative of Local Education Authorities, Associations of Teachers in Secondary Schools, and of the National Union of Teachers. The Report was issued in 1920, and formulated scales of salary for graduates and non-graduates. Details were given of the qualifications which might be regarded as equivalent to a degree in the case of teachers of certain special subjects—Art, Modern Languages, Science, Music.

(3) *Teachers in Technical Schools, Schools of Art, &c.*

The Report of the Burnham Committee on Scales of Salaries for Teachers in Technical Schools, Schools of Art, Junior Technical Schools, Evening Schools, and Day Continuation Schools, was published in August 1921. Full-time teachers in such schools were classified as follows: (1) principals; (2) heads of departments; (3) graduate assistants; (4) non-graduate assistants; (5) instructors. The Committee found it impossible to formulate scales of salaries for classes (1), (2), and (5). For classes (3) and (4) the scales recommended were the same as those for assistant masters and assistant mistresses of Secondary Schools.

III. BURNHAM SCALES

(1) TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

(*a*) *Certificated Assistants.*

Standard Scale.	*Minimum.*		*Annual Increment.*	*Maximum.*	
	Men.	*Women.*		*Men.*	*Women.*
	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£	£
Provisional Minimum	160 0	150 0	10 0	300	240
I	172 10	160 0	12 10	325	260
II	172 10	160 0	12 10	340	272
III	182 10	170 0	12 10	380	304
IV	200 0	187 10	12 10	425	340

[1] *Schoolmaster*, 8 December 1922.

(*b*) *Uncertificated Assistants.*

Standard Scale.	*Minimum.*		*Annual Increment.*	*Maximum.*			
				Appointed on or after 1 April 1914.		*Appointed before 1 April 1914.*	
	Men.	*Women.*		*Men.*	*Women.*	*Men.*	*Women.*
	£ s.	£	£ s.	£	£	£	£
Provisional Minimum .	100 0	90	6 0	150	140	180	150
I and II .	103 10	96	7 10	160	150	204	164
III . .	109 10	102	7 10	180	160	228	182
IV . .	120 0	112	7 10	200	170	255	204

(*c*) *Certificated Head Teachers.*

An Assistant Teacher on appointment to a Head Teachership, and a Head Teacher on promotion to a higher grade, has his or her existing salary increased by an amount depending on the extent of the promotion as measured by grades, as follows :

Under the Provisional Minimum Scale and Scales I and II Men receive an increment of £20 and Women of £15 per grade of school : under Scales III and IV Men receive an increment of £25 and Women £20 per grade.

Schools should be graded as follows :

Grade I. Schools with not over 100 in average attendance.
Grade II. Schools with over 100 but not over 200 in average attendance.
Grade III. Schools with over 200 but not over 350 in average attendance.
Grade IV. Schools with over 500 in average attendance.

After promotion the salaries of Head Teachers rise to maxima as follows :

Grade of School.	*Prov. Min. Scale*	*Scale I.*	*Scale II.*	*Scale III.*	*Scale IV.*
	£	£ s.	£	£	£ s.
Grade I : Men . .	330	357 10	374	418	467 0
Women . .	264	286 0	300	335	374 0
„ II : Men . .	360	390 0	408	456	510 0
Women . .	288	312 0	328	366	408 0
„ III : Men . .	390	422 10	442	494	552 10
Women . .	312	338 0	356	397	442 0
„ IV : Men . .	420	455 0	476	532	595 0
Women . .	336	364 0	384	428	476 0
„ V : Men . .	450	487 10	510	570	637 10
Women . .	360	390 0	412	459	510 0

(d) *Other Classes of Teachers.*

(i) Domestic Science Teachers having a diploma of a recognized Training School in Cookery, Laundry, and Housewifery are paid on the same scale as Certificated Assistant Mistresses College trained; so also are some who have diplomas for only two subjects if they have been recognized by the Board of Education.

(ii) Teachers in Handicraft who hold the Board of Education Teacher's Certificate and have a recognized Diploma in Handicraft are paid on the same scale as College-trained Certificated Assistant Teachers. Those who hold a diploma in Handicraft but not the Teacher's Certificate are paid as Untrained Certificated Assistants if appointed prior to 1 April 1914. The same recognition is accorded to those appointed between 1 April 1914 and 1 January 1921 if they are entitled to rank as Uncertificated Teachers (e. g. have passed the Preliminary Certificate Examination or an equivalent). All others are graded as Uncertificated Teachers.

(iii) Teachers in Special Schools, including Blind and Deaf Schools, receive one increment more than they would receive in Public Elementary Schools and proceed to the same maximum.

(2) TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS[1]

a. GRADUATES

Area.	*Assistant Masters.*			*Assistant Mistresses.*		
	Min.	*Annual Increment.*	*Max.*	*Min.*	*Annual Increment.*	*Max.*
	£	£	£	£	£	£
England and Wales (except London)	240	15	500	225	15	400
London . . .	290	15	550	275	15	440

b. NON-GRADUATES

Area.	*Assistant Masters.*			*Assistant Mistresses.*		
	Min.	*Annual Increment.*	*Max.*	*Min.*	*Annual Increment.*	*Max.*
	£	£ s.	£	£ s.	£ s.	£
England and Wales (except London)	190	12 10	400	177 10	12 10	320
London . . .	210	12 10	450	197 10	12 10	360

Additions to be made to these scales for a 'good honours degree', for post-graduate professional training, for three years' professional training for non-graduates, for long service or for other exceptional circumstances.

Certain qualifications of teachers in Art, Science, Modern Languages, or Music are considered equivalent to a Pass degree for the purposes of the scale of salary.

[1] For a more detailed explanation see Dunkerley and Kingham, *The Assistant Master*, ch. v.

N.B. 1. It was agreed that the Burnham Scales, if adopted, should remain in force until 1 April 1923 in the London area, and until 1 April 1925 in the provinces.

2. In November 1922 the Burnham Committees recommended 'that during the financial year commencing 1 April 1923 the teachers consent to a reduction of 5 per cent. of the salaries payable during that financial year under allocated scales'. To this the teachers agreed.

3. In September 1923 the President of the Board of Education invited the Committees to continue their work with a view to recommending revised Salary Scales to come into operation on 1 April 1925.

IV. LECTURERS IN TRAINING COLLEGES

The Report of the Departmental Committee of 1918 (Cd. 9140) recommended that lecturers in Training Colleges should be paid according to scales. Interchange between lecturers in Training Colleges and teachers in Secondary Schools was thought to be desirable, and it was suggested that this might be promoted by a co-ordination of scales of salary; thus, for example, the emoluments of ordinary posts in Colleges, while better than the remuneration for ordinary posts in schools, might be approximately equal to the salaries for higher posts in schools. The scale for Training College lecturers should be framed so as to attract not only teachers of some experience, but teachers of exceptional merit.

The Committee recommended that Principals of Training Colleges should have personal scales, short and steep in character. In fixing the salary of a resident Principal, allowance should be made for extended duty and heavy responsibility involved by residence.

In July 1922 the Board of Education issued Circular 1268 in which they stated that expenditure on salaries of full time lecturers in Training Colleges supported or aided by Local Education Authorities, would be regarded as legitimate expenditure for purposes of grant if they were based on the scales drawn up by the Burnham Committee for Assistant Teachers in Secondary Schools, allowances being made for positions of special responsibility and for Wardens of Hostels.

6. KENT EDUCATION COMMITTEE

SCHEME

FOR A SYSTEM OF LOANS AND ABSOLUTE GRANTS TO STUDENTS

PART I.—LOANS FOR TEACHERS OR INTENDING TEACHERS WHO NEED ASSISTANCE TO ATTEND A TRAINING COLLEGE . . .

1. *Object of Scheme.*— . . . to Assist Intending Teachers, Uncertificated Teachers, and others to complete a course of training at an approved Training College.

2. *Amount of Loan.*—All advances will be made free of interest. No individual loan will, as a rule, exceed £36 in any one year, and the maximum loan will normally be £72, repayable in three years, as set

out below in paragraph 6. The Committee may, however, make advances up to a total sum of £144 in cases specially approved by them. A proportion of the advances made will usually take the form of the payment of College fees.

3. *Eligibility for Loan.*—(*a*) *Residence.*—In order that the candidate may be eligible for a loan his parent or guardian must be a *bonâ fide* resident within the administrative County of Kent. If a candidate is maintaining himself he must have a similar residential qualification.

(*b*) *Income.*—As a rule, the joint annual incomes of the candidate's parents must not exceed £500, after the deduction of £50 for each child wholly or partially dependent upon the parents and of the amount of premiums paid in respect of Life Insurance. The Committee must be satisfied that without assistance the candidate or his parents would be unable to undertake the expense of the training. They may require the submission of an income tax assessment, and will take into account in advancing loans the ability of the parents to draw on reserves of capital.

A scholarship, exhibition, and/or another loan may be held by the candidate concurrently with the Committee's loan, but the candidate must make a full disclosure of any such monetary assistance.

(*c*) *Academic Qualifications.*—The candidate must have passed an examination qualifying for entrance to a Training College and must be recognized as a training student by the Board of Education. The Committee must be satisfied that there is a reasonable probability of the applicant's passing the Final Examination required by the Training College.

(*d*) *Moral Character.*—In the case of pupils in Secondary Schools the Committee will require the report of the Head Master (Mistress) to include reference to the moral character of the candidate. In other cases the Committee will require such testimony of the moral fitness of the candidate as they may deem to be desirable.

(*e*) *Physical Fitness.*—The Committee will require evidence of the physical fitness of the candidate, either by inspection by the County Medical Officer, or from insurance certificates, or as they may otherwise determine.

4. *Age Limits.*—The Committee, while being ready to consider on their merits applications for loans from persons over 30 years of age, will not ordinarily grant loans to persons above that age.

5. *Service on Completion of Training.*—The Grantee shall undertake to complete his course of training, and to serve, if called upon to do so, in an approved school or schools within the administrative County of Kent, either in pursuance of an engagement as a teacher upon the staff of such a school, or as a supply or unattached teacher, for a period of at least three years or until the whole of the loan is repaid (whichever is the longer period).

6. *Conditions of Repayment.*—(*a*) Nothing laid down in paragraphs 6 (*b*), 6 (*c*), and 6 (*f*) below shall preclude the Grantee from repaying at a greater rate than that prescribed if he so desires.

(*b*) In the normal cases in which a loan of £36 a year has been made

for two years, the Grantees shall repay at the minimum rate of £12 during the first year of service as a teacher, £24 during the second year of service, and £36 during the third year of service. In the cases of Grantees who enter the service of the Committee repayments will, on the written request of the Grantee, be made by deductions from the monthly instalments of the Grantee's salary. In all other cases the amount to be returned annually must be paid to the Committee in twelve equal monthly instalments.

(*c*) In cases in which the total amount of the loan does not exceed £72 the whole loan must be repaid during the first three years of service ; if a greater amount than £72 has been advanced the Committee may extend the period of repayment to a maximum of five years. In such cases the amount of each annual instalment to be repaid shall be determined by the Committee, but in any case will not exceed £12 during the first year of service, £24 during the second, and £36 during the third and following years, unless the Grantee so desires.

(*d*) In the event of the failure of the Grantee to obtain a certificate, diploma, or degree, or to obtain an appointment as a teacher, his liability shall be the same as if such qualifications or appointment had been obtained.

(*e*) Should the Grantee abandon his course of training, or leave the teaching profession, or fail to carry out his obligations to serve under the Committee, or cease to reside in the United Kingdom, before the full number of years' service prescribed in Paragraph 5 above has been completed, the whole of the loan outstanding shall become due forthwith.

(*f*) In the event of failure to repay punctually and in accordance with the terms of the Scheme any instalment of loan, the whole of the loan shall fall due forthwith, together with an additional 5 per cent. per annum on arrears.

7. *Course of Training.*—The previous consent of the Committee must be obtained to any modification of the Training Course originally approved by them.

8. *Agreement.*—A Grantee to whom the Committee agree to advance a loan shall sign a receipt for the money advanced, and a form of agreement in which he undertakes to comply with the conditions regarding service on completion of training and repayment of loan set out in Paragraphs 5 and 6 above. If a Grantee is under the age of 21, he shall promise to sign the form of agreement on reaching that age.

9. *Surety.*—The Committee may require a Surety who shall undertake to repay the loan in case of the Grantee's default.

10. *Power to Vary Conditions and/or Amount of Repayment.*—The Committee reserve the power in exceptional cases to vary the method and/or period of repayment, or to forgo their claim to repayment of the whole or any part of the loan.

11. *Form of Application.*—Application for a loan should be made on the prescribed form which can be obtained from the Director of Education, Kent Education Committee, Springfield, Maidstone.

. . . . . .

Part II of the Scheme gives details of Loans for students attending institutions of University rank, or other approved places of Higher Education : the conditions are similar to the above, but the amounts are larger.

Part III gives particulars of absolute grants which may be made to students in addition to the loans referred to in Parts I and II. These grants are to vary in accordance with the financial position of the students' parents. For students in Training Colleges for Elementary or Domestic Subjects Teachers the amount may be from £10 to £20, but no limits are named in the case of students in Physical Training Colleges, Universities, or other places of Higher Education, each case being considered independently.

KENT EDUCATION COMMITTEE

EXTRACT FROM QUARTERLY REPORT TO THE KENT COUNTY COUNCIL, NOVEMBER 1922

Loans to Students. . . .It should be observed that :

(i) Every repayment under the new scheme will be a saving on present expenditure ; (ii) No student will be eligible for loans who would not be eligible for absolute grants if the present system were retained ; (iii) The amount to be expended will be limited by the annual estimates approved by the County Council ; (iv) The advance of a loan involves no guarantee on the part of the Committee in regard to future employment or rate of remuneration.

In Table A below the effect is shown of continuing the present system for the year 1923–4 and introducing the new system in 1924, on the assumption that 90 students will receive grants. This will provide for 80 students to follow two-year courses, 3 to follow one-year and 3 to follow third-year courses, and 4 to take courses for teachers of Domestic Subjects or Physical Training.

Table A.—Estimated Expenditure on Loans and Absolute Grants to Students in Training Colleges

Financial Year.	*Loans made during Year.*	*Repayments during Year.*	*Absolute Grants.*	*Annual Cost.*
	£	£	£	£
1923–4	—	—	6,070 [1]	**6,070**
1924–5	3,240	—	3,535 [1]	6,775
1925–6	6,480	—	1,000	7,480
1926–7	6,480	540	1,000	6,940
1927–8	6,480	2,160	1,000	5,320
1928–9	6,480	4,860	1,000	2,620
1929–30 and later years	6,480	6,480	1,000	1,000

As regards the awards to University students, it is considered that the annual provision required for meeting the needs during the imme-

[1] Amount of expiring awards under present system.

diate future will be equivalent to ten loans at £60 a year for four years, plus 40 loans at £40 for four years, together with absolute grants limited to a total of £1,600 in any year. The effect is shown in the following Table B:

TABLE B.—Estimated Expenditure on Loans and Absolute Grants to University Students

Financial Year.	*Loans made during Year.*	*Repayments during Year.*	*Absolute Grants, including expiring Exhibitions.*	*Annual Cost.*
	£	£	£	£
1923–4	2,200	—	7,375 [1]	**9,575**
1924–5	4,400	—	6,035 [1]	10,435
1925–6	6,600	—	4,690 [1]	11,290
1926–7	8,800	—	3,345 [1]	12,145
1927–8	8,800	1,000	1,600	9,400
1928–9	8,800	3,000	1,600	7,400
1929–30	8,800	5,000	1,600	5,400
1930–1	8,800	7,000	1,600	3,400
1931–2	8,800	8,200	1,600	2,200
1932–3	8,800	8,600	1,600	1,800
1933–4 and later years	8,800	8,800	1,600	1,600

The following Table C shows the estimated annual cost for the year 1922–3 and later years of the existing scheme of absolute grants, if no change were made:

Table C

Financial Year.	*Group A (Training College) Loans and Grants.*	*Group B (University) Loans and Grants.*	*Total.*
	£	£	£
1922–3	9,660	9,975	19,635
1923–4 and later years .	6,070	8,940	15,010

The permanent maximum of outstanding loans in respect of both groups is £63,600. In the case of Group A the maximum (£21,600) will be reached in 1928–9 and in the case of Group B (£42,000) in 1932–3. It should be remembered, however, that under the present system all such expenditure would have been paid out by the Committee in absolute grants. It should be noticed that, when the scheme is in full working order, the estimated cost will be £2,600 a year as compared with an expenditure of £19,635 for the current year and £15,010 for later years.

As regards the cost of administering the Scheme, assuming that all payments are made punctually, there will be, when the scheme is in full operation, 450 Group A beneficiaries and 420 Group B. A considerable amount of clerical work will be involved, and it will be necessary to provide additional assistance equivalent to a full-time clerk.

[1] Including amount of expiring awards under present system.

II. STATISTICS

1. NUMBER OF ADULT TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (ENGLAND AND WALES), 1870–1921

TABLE A

Year.	Certificated.			Uncertificated.	Supplementary.	Student Teachers.	Totals.
	Trained.	Untrained.	Total.				
1870	—	—	12,467	1,262	—	—	13,729
1875	14,872	6,071	20,943	2,713	—	—	23,656
1880	18,893	12,529	31,422	7,652	2,352	—	41,426
1885	22,658	18,048	40,706	16,618	4,292	—	61,616
1890	25,643	20,896	46,539	21,784	5,210	—	73,533
1895	30,639	22,302	52,941	27,961	11,678	—	92,580
1900	—	—	64,038	32,436	17,512	—	113,986
1904–5	42,894	35,843	78,737	42,346	19,136	—	140,219
1905–6	44,550	39,725	84,275	40,749	23,114	—	148,138
1906–7	46,503	42,966	89,469	40,633	22,027	—	152,129
1907–8	48,776	42,352	91,128	44,267	20,514	1	155,910
1908–9	50,674	44,098	94,772	44,384	18,383	1,648	159,187
1909–10	53,331	44,065	97,396	45,555	16,388	2,465	161,804
1910–11	56,664	44,332	100,996	45,637	14,418	2,272	163,323
1911–12	59,831	43,684	103,515	44,462	13,865	1,841	163,683
1912–13	63,228	42,799	106,027	42,893	13,477	1,755	164,152
1913–14	66,906	42,250	109,156	41,407	13,367	1,971	165,901
1919–20	76,519	37,584	114,103	35,772	13,424	3,447	166,746
1920–1	79,526	36,543	116,069	35,457	13,540	4,248	169,314

Note.—From 1904–5 to 1907–8 the figures for Uncertificated Teachers include retired Army Schoolmasters and Provisionally Certificated Teachers. From 1904–5 to 1909–10 the figures for Supplementary Teachers include Provisional Assistant Teachers. For references see Table B on opposite page.

NUMBER OF ADULT TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, ENGLAND AND WALES, 1870–1921 [1], TABLE B

Year.	Certificated Teachers. Trained. Men.	Trained. Women.	Untrained. Men.	Untrained. Women.	Uncertificated. Men.	Uncertificated. Women.	Supplementary. Men.	Supplementary. Women.	Student Teachers. Men.	Student Teachers. Women.	Totals. Men.	Totals. Women.
1870	—	12,467		—	487	775	—	—	—	—	6,882	6,847
1875	7,548	7,324	2,284	3,787	984	1,729	—	—	—	—	10,816	12,840
1880	9,546	9,347	3,975	8,554	2,681	4,971	—	2,352	—	—	16,202	25,224
1885	11,287	11,371	5,026	13,022	5,104	11,514	—	4,292	—	—	21,417	40,199
1890	12,770	12,873	5,934	14,962	5,254	16,530	—	5,210	—	—	23,958	49,575
1895	15,023	15,616	6,200	16,102	5,047	22,914	—	11,678	—	—	26,270	66,310
1900	—	64,038		—	32,436		—	17,512	—	—	113,986	
1904–5	19,922	22,972	8,358	27,485	5,530	36,816	46 [2]	19,090 [2]	—	—	33,856	106,363
1905–6	20,476	24,074	8,938	30,787	4,928	35,821	560 [2]	22,554 [2]	—	—	34,902	113,236
1906–7	21,174	25,329	9,339	33,627	4,751	35,882	632 [2]	21,395 [2]	—	—	35,896	116,233
1907–8	22,024	26,752	9,181	33,171	5,320	38,947	546 [2]	19,968 [2]	1	—	37,072	118,838
1908–9	22,639	28,035	9,386	34,712	5,670	38,714	314 [2]	18,069 [2]	563	1,085	38,572	120,615
1909–10	23,381	29,950	9,424	34,641	6,005	39,550	149 [2]	16,239 [2]	842	1,623	39,801	122,003
1910–11	24,412	32,252	9,601	34,731	6,131	39,506	10	14,408	755	1,517	40,909	122,614
1911–12	25,402	34,429	9,503	34,181	5,830	38,632	—	13,865	572	1,269	41,307	122,376
1912–13	26,497	36,731	9,493	33,306	5,303	37,590	—	13,477	542	1,213	41,835	122,317
1913–14	27,804	39,102	9,422	32,828	4,655	36,752	—	13,367	485	1,486	42,366	123,535
1919–20	26,416	50,103	8,019	29,565	2,659	33,113	—	13,424	488	2,959	37,582	129,164
1920–1	26,561	52,965	7,682	28,861	2,177	33,280	—	13,540	747	3,501	37,167	132,147

[1] This and the preceding table have been compiled as follows :
Years 1870–95 from *Board of Education Special Reports*, vol. i, p. 46.
Years 1904–5 to 1912–13 from *Statistics of Public Education*, 1913–14, Table 8, p. 26.
Years 1913–14 and 1919–20 from *Statistics of Public Education*, 1919–20, Tables 27 and 32, pp. 18 and 20.
Year 1920–1, *B. of E. Report*, 1921–2, pp. 15, 19, 56, 97.

[2] Include Provisional Assistant Teachers.

2. NUMBER OF INTENDING TEACHERS IN ENGLAND AND WALES (1906–20)[1]

	ENGLAND.							WALES.							ENGLAND AND WALES
	Bursars.		*Pupil Teachers.*		*Student Teachers who have not been Bursars.*			*Bursars.*		*Pupil Teachers.*		*Student Teachers who have not been Bursars.*			
Year.	*Boys.*	*Girls.*	*Boys.*	*Girls.*	*Boys.*	*Girls.*	*Totals.*	*Boys.*	*Girls.*	*Boys.*	*Girls.*	*Boys.*	*Girls.*	*Totals.*	*Totals.*
1906	—	—	2,468	8,550	—	—	11,018	—	—	233	650	—	—	883	11,901
1907	637	1,406	2,092	6,205	1	—	10,341	83	110	219	528	—	—	940	11,281
1908	1,112	2,393	1,302	3,907	57		8,771	118	167	168	383	7		843	9,614
1909–10	1,090	2,251	894	2,956	99		7,290	151	202	147	268	9		777	8,067
1910–11	1,721	2,041	583	2,029	34	95	5,503	107	165	107	285	6	12	682	6,185
1911–12	723	2,135	393	1,562	88	176	5,077	60	135	106	269	18	14	602	5,679
1912–13	615	2,226	295	1,173	64	215	4,588	79	154	94	278	20	19	644	5,232
1913–14	590	2,422	286	1,427	72	246	5,048	92	176	89	325	26	46	754	5,797
1914–15	681	2,580	284	1,602	68	302	5,517	75	184	119	386	24	63	851	6,368
1915–16	703	2,923	322	1,846	53	352	6,199	94	210	100	357	32	55	848	7,047
1916	594	2,766	285	1,666	41	342	5,694	83	235	54	361	40	77	850	6,544
1917	485	2,695	241	1,666	34	322	5,443	92	229	56	319	20	101	817	6,260
1918	415	2,718	201	1,536	49	355	5,274	67	254	54	297	23	119	814	6,088
1919	571	2,967	232	1,356	94	377	5,597	62	310	68	319	67	181	1,007	6,604
1920	691	3,564	317	1,676	96	415	6,759	100	287	64	307	82	258	1,098	7,857

[1] From *Board of Education Reports* 1911–12, 1912–13, 1914–15, 1916–17, 1919–20.

3. DEVELOPMENT OF TRAINING SYSTEM, 1850–1920 [1]

Year.	*Number of Colleges.*	*Accommodation.*
1850	16	991
1860	34	2,388
1870	34	2,495
1880	41	3,275
1890	49	3,679
1900	61	6,011
1905	72	8,987
1910	85	12,625

Year.	*Number of Colleges.*				*Number of Students.*
	University.	*Council.*	*Voluntary.*	*Total.*	
1913	20	20	47	87	11,787
1914	20	22	47	89	10,948
1915	19	19	40	78	10,150
1916	18	19	35	72	9,033
1917	18	19	37	74	9,117
1918	20	20	38	78	10,077
1919	20	21	47	88	13,578
1920	20	22	50	92	15,451

4. STAFFS OF TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

a. For Elementary Teachers [2]

Full-Time Teachers.	1913–14. *University.*	*Council.*	*Voluntary.*	*Total.*	1919–20. *Total Vol. and Council only.*
(*a*) Certificated Graduate					
i. Trained	37	88	110	235	167
ii. Others	1	4	6	11	9
(*b*) Certificated (not Graduate)					
i. Trained	8	22	92	122	86
ii. Others	0	2	2	4	5
(*c*) Graduates (not Certificated)	42	78	134	254	239
(*d*) Others	9	38	58	105	157
Total number of full time teachers	97	232	402	731	663
Percentage of Graduates	82·4	73·2	62·1	68·4	62·6
Number of Students	2,937	3,299	5,492	11,728	9,199
Average number of Students per Teacher	30·2	14·2	13·6	16	13·9

[1] Years 1850–1910 from *Board of Education Report*, 1912–13, p. 5; years 1913–20 from *Board of Education Report*, 1920–1, p. 51.

[2] *Statistics of Public Education*, Part I, 1913–14, Tables 57, 58, pp. 158–9, and 1919–20, Table 172, p. 156.

b. For Secondary Teachers (three Colleges only) [1]

1921–2.

College.	Students. Diploma.	Students. Kindergarten.	Staff. Full Time.	Staff. Part Time, also on School Staff.	Staff. Graduates.[2]	Staff. Recognized Teachers of a University.[2]
Cambridge Training College for Women	30[3]	—	4	—	4	—
Maria Grey Training College	21	66	3	8	8	3
St. Mary's College, Lancaster Gate, W.	20	40	2	10	8	2

5. INSTRUCTION IN SPECIAL SUBJECTS [4]

Number of Centres and Schools in which instruction was given in the years 1909–10, 1914–15, 1919–20.

	1909–10.	*1914–15.*	*1919–20.*
Cookery	2,481	3,284	3,122
Laundry work	599	1,264	1,321
Housewifery	85	503	931
Combined Domestic Subjects	110	239	270
Mixed Courses in Domestic Subjects	—	172	473
Handicraft	1,068	1,735	1,780
Gardening	1,872	3,362	5,178

6. TEACHERS OF DOMESTIC SUBJECTS

Number of Students in Domestic Science Schools, 1909–21.[5]

Year	1909–10	1910–11	1911–12	1912–13	1913–14	1914–15
Students	903	963	1,033	1,173	1,214	1,176
Year	1915–16	1916–17	1917–18	1918–19	1919–20	1920–1
Students	1,139	873	517	455	613	854

[1] Details supplied by Colleges.
[2] These figures refer to the teachers in columns 3 and 4.
[3] Recognized for 40 students.
[4] From *Board of Education Reports,* 1910–11, 1915–16, 1919–20.
[5] From *Board of Education Reports,* 1911–12, 1915–16, 1920–1.

7. CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION FOR ACTING TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

ENGLAND AND WALES

Summary of Results, 1908–21 [1]

Year.	*Number of Candidates.*	*Number of Failures.*	*Percentage of Failures.*
1908	5,197	3,075	59·2
1909	6,186	3,856	62·3
1910	6,663	4,652	69·8
1911	4,331	2,975	68·7
1912	4,073	3,059	75·1
1913	2,763	1,944	70·4
1914	1,859	1,313	70·6
1915	1,348	903	67·0
1916	1,086	675	62·2
1917	955	571	59·8
1918	1,001	641	64·0
1919	999	536	53·7
1920	1,137	597	52·5
1921	1,158	633	54·7

APPENDIX D

GENERAL

1. Note on the Training of Teachers for Special Schools (for Blind, Deaf, Defective, and Epileptic Children).
2. Scotland. Conditions of transfer of Denominational Colleges to the National Committee for the Training of Teachers.
3. Diagrams illustrating the organization of the educational systems of the United States and France.
4. Maps: England and Wales, showing position of Training Institutions recognized by the Board of Education in 1922.
   Scotland, showing Training Institutions and division into Provinces.

1. NOTE ON THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR SPECIAL SCHOOLS (for Blind, Deaf, Defective, and Epileptic Children)

Systematic provision for Blind and Deaf Children by Local Authorities dates from 1893 (Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act). This Act empowered School Boards to make provision for their education and the Board of Education to assist by grants. An Act of 1899 extended these powers to include Mentally Defective and Epileptic Children, and further Acts of 1903 and 1907 regulated the

[1] *B. of E. Reports*, 1912–13, 1915–16, 1920–1, 1921–2.

system. Finally in 1914 the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act made it the duty of Local Education Authorities to provide for their education, and the Act of 1918 (Section 20) extended this duty to include Physically Defectives and Epileptics. On 31 March 1920 the numbers of schools, scholars, and teachers were as follows : [1]

Number of Special Schools.	*Provided by :*		*Total Enrolment.*	*Staff.*	
	L.E.A.'s.	*Vol. Organ.*		*Full Time.*	*Part Time.*
469	351	118	34,342	2,042	338

Of the full-time teachers 864 were both Certificated and College trained, 412 were Certificated but not trained : more than three-fourths were women.

The staffs of Special Schools have in the past been recruited mainly from the ranks of teachers in ordinary Elementary Schools who have been attracted to the work, but from 1908 onwards the Board of Education have recognized two types of training course. The first is in reality a third year of special preparation in an approved institution, the second a modified form of Two-Year Course. The modification consists in substituting a more suitable course in the Principles of Teaching, and in providing extended practical experience in one or more Special Schools. The first type of course is the one preferred by the Board.

Two training institutions have a direct connexion with the Board of Education. Prior to the War the National Association for the Oral Instruction of the Deaf maintained a small College in Fitzroy Square, London ; students were tested in their professional studies by the Association and in general studies by the Board. This institution has been closed and a special course is now provided by the Manchester University Training Department. An institution of special interest is the Upper Norwood College (London) for blind students who wish to become teachers. This institution is in every respect, except that of curriculum, on the same footing as Two-Year Voluntary Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers. Experimental One-Year Courses for the training of teachers for Mentally Defective Children were instituted in 1915–16 at the Manchester Municipal Day Training College and at the Furzedown College (London),[2] but have since been discontinued. For obvious reasons, particularly the necessity of providing facilities for obtaining practical experience and the small number of students, training courses for teachers in Special Schools will always be confined to a few centres.

[1] *Board of Education Statistics*, 1919–20, Tables 54–6.
[2] *Board of Education Report*, 1915–16, pp. 65–6.

SCOTLAND

2. SPECIMEN COPY OF CONDITIONS UPON WHICH THE DENOMINATIONAL COLLEGES HAVE BEEN TRANSFERRED TO THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE, the following being those applicable to Notre Dame Roman Catholic College, Glasgow :

(Appendix V of the First Annual Report, 1920–1, of the Central Executive Committee of the National Committee for the Training of Teachers.)

1. That the management of Notre Dame Training College be transferred to the National Committee, as from the 1st August 1920.

2. That the National Committee shall delegate the management of the College, in so far as the secular instruction and the training of students are concerned, to a Committee of Management, in terms of Section 6 (*b*) of the Minute of 10th February 1920.

3. Such Committee of Management shall be constituted as follows :

Five members elected by the Catholic Education Council of Great Britain, of whom one shall be a woman teacher actively engaged in the work of education in Primary, Intermediate, or Secondary Schools, and nominated by the Association of Catholic Teachers in Scotland.

Three members elected by the Glasgow Provincial Committee for the Training of Teachers from amongst those of their number who represent Education Authorities.

Two members elected by the National Committee.

A chairman shall be appointed by the members of the Committee of Management, and shall have a casting as well as a deliberative vote.

4. That the provisions of Sections 7 and 8 of the Minute of 10th February 1920 shall, *mutatis mutandis*, apply to the Committee of Management appointed under this agreement, provided that, so long as her teaching qualifications are satisfactory to the National Committee and to the Scottish Education Department, the Principal of the College shall always be a member of the Congregation of Notre Dame, and that all Lecturers appointed shall, as regards their religious belief and character, be approved by the Catholic Education Council.

5. That the provisions of Section 12 of the Minute of the Committee of Council, dated 10th February 1920, *re* the power of the Department to appoint an Assessor or Assessors, shall apply to the Committee of Management appointed according to this agreement.

6. That the Catholic Education Council shall provide and maintain suitable accommodation for the training of the students without charge.

7. That the National Committee shall make itself responsible for all charges for heating, lighting, rating, and service, applicable exclu-

sively to the Training College, provided that the cost per student for all such services shall not exceed the cost per student for similar services under the Glasgow Provincial Committee.

8. That the present equipment of the Training College be handed over to the National Committee at a valuation by a mutually agreed arbiter. The National Committee shall be responsible for any additional equipment now or hereafter required, and all such equipment shall be the property of the National Committee.

9. That the National Committee shall take over the present Teaching Staff of the College upon the conditions as regards salaries and tenure of office in operation for the year ended 31st July 1920. That any new scales adopted by the National Committee shall apply under like conditions to the members of the staff of Notre Dame Training College.

10. That the National Committee shall recognize the Boarding House or Hostel connected with Notre Dame Training College, and unless the Committee of Management recommend otherwise in exceptional cases, shall require the students of the Training College to reside therein, provided :

(1) That the fee for residence shall not exceed the fee charged at the hostels under the Glasgow Provincial Committee ; and

(2) That no claim for contribution be made under Article 27 of the Regulations for the Preliminary Education and Training of Teachers.

11. That, provided they are satisfied as to the facilities in the matter of accommodation, the National Committee are prepared, until further notice, to conduct Notre Dame Training College for 220 students.

12. That the National Committee shall have no responsibility for expenditure incurred, nor any claims to grants accrued, prior to 1st August 1920 ; and that all training fees and grants under Article 60, in respect of Session 1920–1 and succeeding years, be paid to the National Committee.

13. That the National Committee's scale of fees for training apply to all students admitted in and after 1921 ; and that students admitted prior to 1921 pay the same fees as they are paying at present, and receive from the National Committee a continuance of any assistance granted them in terms of Article 30.

14. That the National Committee relieve the present Managers of any responsibility for repayments under the last sentence of Article 31, provided that the Managers take all reasonable steps to secure recovery of any sums due from the teachers concerned.

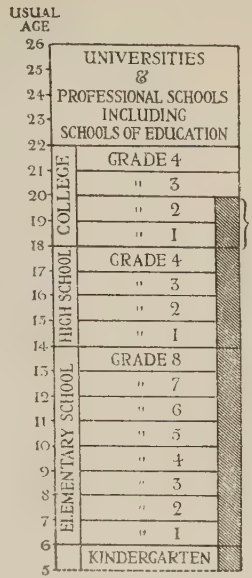
15. That, subject to the approval of the Department, the terms of this agreement may, by mutual consent, be varied from time to time.

16. That, in the event of any dispute or difference arising as to the interpretation or the fulfilment of the terms and conditions of the agreement, the same shall be referred to the Scottish Education Department, whose decision shall be final and binding.

DIAGRAMS ILLUSTRATING THE ORGANIZATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS OF

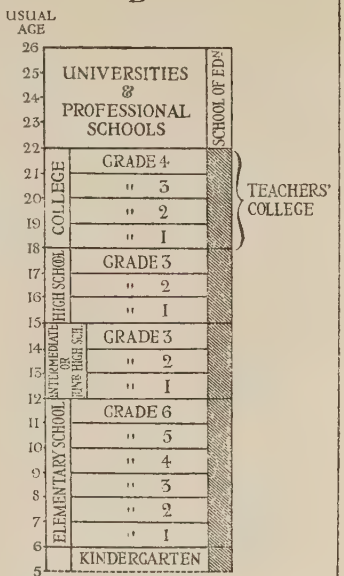
1. THE UNITED STATES

A



Standard Arrangement today (known as the 8-4 plan).

B



Organization of the Future (known as the 6-3-3 plan): already adopted by some communities

N.B. The shaded portions indicate the course of education and training for the Elementary Teacher under each type of organization.

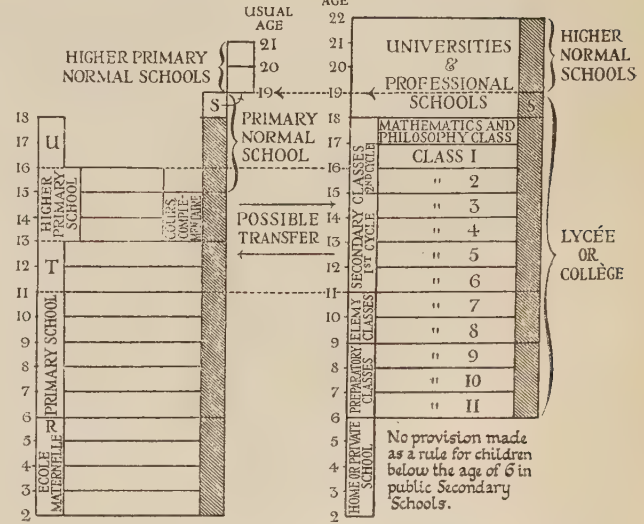
2. FRANCE

C

PRIMARY SYSTEM

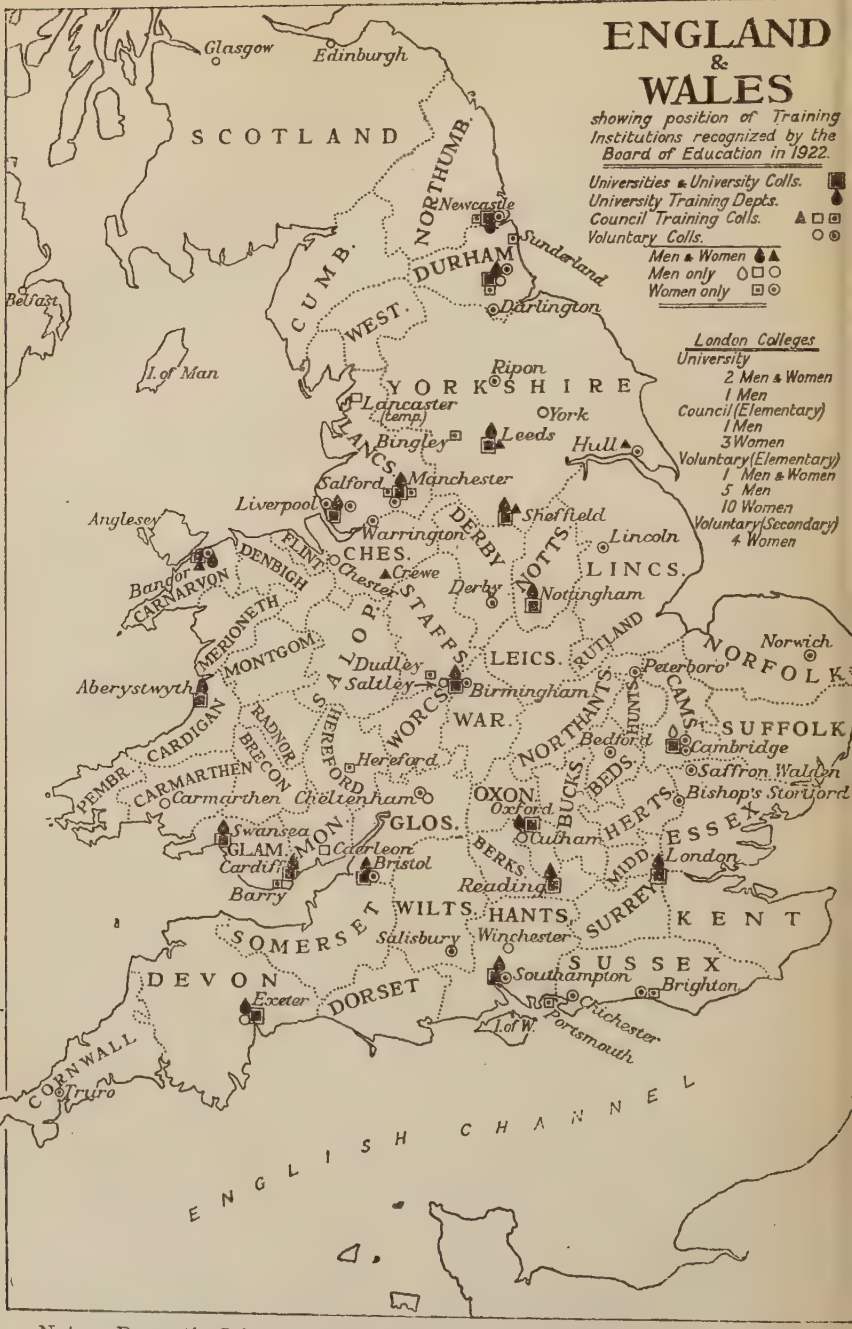
D

SECONDARY SYSTEM



Notes. R. The age of admission to the Primary School is 5 when there is no École Maternelle.
S. Special Classes (in a limited number of schools) in which students are prepared for the competitive entrance examination to the Higher Normal Schools.
T. Transfer to the Higher Primary School may take place any time after attaining the age of 11
U. Some Higher Primary Schools provide a four-year course - a few add a fifth year.

N.B. The shaded portions indicate the standard course of education and training for Primary and Secondary Teachers respectively.



Note: Domestic Science Schools are not shown. See List in Appendix B. Of Council Training Colleges Hull is now (1923) for Women only, and Dudley for both Men and Women.

Note : There is also a Physical Training College at Dunfermline and a Training Department for Secondary Teachers at St. George's School, Edinburgh, the one controlled by, the other affiliated to, the National Committee.

APPENDIX E

1. CORRESPONDENCE ARISING OUT OF THE PRELIMINARY CIRCULATION OF THE SURVEY

2. MEMORANDUM BY THE RIGHT HON. VISCOUNT ESHER, G.C.B., G.C.V.O.

1. Correspondence

Letter from : Sir Michael Sadler, The University, Leeds.

14th June 1923.

Dear Mr. Jones,

Since I came back from Canada, I have been under great pressure of work and not free to give a day or two, as I should have liked to do, to the careful study of your book.

But I have been able to read enough of it to see that it is a contribution of the first importance to our knowledge of the administrative side of the problem.

On the broad questions of aiming at a good secondary education for all intending teachers, and of non-segregation (though I feel that some qualifications are needed to my general statement as to the latter), I agree with your conclusions.

The most important thing in English education now is that we are slowly finding our way into a new freedom. But we are still numbed, in places, by old inhibitions, by custom, by want of life in public opinion on the essential things of education. For this reason I sympathize with changes which will extend more widely opportunities for a liberal education and force us to think out more clearly what we now mean by a liberal education.

The technique of training must be governed by the clear aims of specific types of school. These aims are not yet clear, and I don't think they can be quite clear until we have got first a new and more experimental spirit into all our education—including University education.

Administrative controls, which will be borne easily and healthily when the teachers and the institutions have felt their freedom and are freely experimenting in touch with the public, might hamper these beginnings of freedom. Therefore I doubt whether we are ready for any complete scheme of reorganization. Free experiment, and comparison of results, are the first necessities. Nothing will be more interesting than experiment, or more likely to attract the interest of parents and the public, as well as of students and their teachers.

I fear that the first paragraph in that part of the summary which deals with finance might be used as an excuse for drastic economy. We want more funds, on my plan, not less.

Because the time which you mentioned in your letter is over I feel that I must write without further delay. But I hope you will find that

the reading of your report has started as many thoughts in other people's minds as it has done in mine.

Yours sincerely,
M. E. SADLER.

Letter from: Dr. Helen M. Wodehouse, Professor of Education, University of Bristol.

9th June 1923.

DEAR MR. JONES,

I have read with great pleasure your extraordinarily thorough account of the Training College system. I think it is a wonderful piece of work, and I hope you are bringing it to the notice of the secretary or chairman of the present Departmental Committee. I enclose a few notes, but very little correction is needed.

With compliments, yours sincerely,
H. M. WODEHOUSE

Dr. Wodehouse disagrees fundamentally with the disapproval of the 'concurrent course' expressed in the Report. She considers that the Two-Year Course presents the following advantages:

1. Some students can carry their studies further in such a course than would otherwise be possible to them.

2. Training for teaching is a slow-moving process—two years is none too long for it yet its content is not enough to fill the two years, something else must accompany it, and general education is a natural and profitable accompaniment.

3. It is an advantage for general education and professional training to be in the hands of the same instructors. The student learns to trust and respect the lecturer more readily than if he dealt only with the teaching aspect of a subject.

Letter from: Professor Findlay, Faculty of Education, University of Manchester.

30th May 1923.

MY DEAR SIR,

I have followed the suggestion of the Secretary and put brief memoranda at various points in this Report; they are scribbled very loosely, and I doubt whether they will be of any practical use, but at any rate they will show how greatly I have been interested in your work. It recalls to me efforts in which I was engaged 20 or 30 years ago. I believe that your contribution will be in many ways of great value, especially at the present juncture.

Yours faithfully,
J. J. FINDLAY.

Professor Findlay agrees that the Two-Year Student is out of place in a University, but doubts whether it would be wise to arrange for the co-operation of Training Colleges and Universities for purposes of

arranging curricula and conducting examinations. His note on the latter point runs :

' I have grave doubts as to the wisdom of using University Teachers as quasi-administrators in this way.'

Letter from : Sir Graham Balfour, Director of Education for Staffordshire.

30th May 1923.

DEAR MR. JONES,

Last Saturday I found on my desk an advance copy of your Critical Survey, and I must no longer delay my acknowledgements and thanks. It is indeed a thorough and solid piece of work which comes at the right moment, and ought to be of great service to the Commission. The field seems to be well covered, the matter logically arranged and clearly stated, the judgements sane and well balanced. Indeed this book could hardly have been written by any one in any other position than yourself, quite independent of the Training College, with full knowledge of Elementary Schools, and with the wider outlook of the University. I have no doubt that the book will secure adequate recognition.

With many thanks and best wishes,
Yours sincerely,
GRAHAM BALFOUR.

P.S. For next year we are converting all our remaining ' Exhibitions for Intending Teachers ' for candidates in Elementary Schools into Open Minor Scholarships tenable at Secondary Schools.

Letter from : Mr. Bolton King, Director of Education, Warwick.

29th May 1923.

DEAR MR. JONES,

I have read most of your report and with the greatest interest. It is the most illuminating writing I have seen on the subject, and it will be invaluable as a book of reference. And though I do not altogether agree with some of its conclusions, I feel very reluctant to differ from its wise and balanced judgement.

With the great bulk of your report I agree entirely, and I am sure it will do a great deal of good. But I do feel strongly the danger—so much to the fore at the present day—of over-valuing the academic side of training at the expense of the power to teach and the teacher's moral influence. I feel sure we are really agreed, but I am a little afraid that parts of your report may encourage the danger I have spoken of.

Yours very sincerely,
BOLTON KING.

Mr. Bolton King's comments are to the following effect :

i. *Preliminary Education.* Until the intellectual standard and still more the tone of Secondary Schools (especially Girls' Schools)

are higher it will be desirable to retain alternative methods of preliminary education.

ii. *Test of fitness.* This is desirable but difficult to arrange *before* training. Short periods of testing are valueless, and it is better to depend on a period of probation after the training is completed. 'I realize that to cut out teachers at 22 instead of 18 or earlier means a waste, but I do not see how it is to be avoided.'

iii. There is a danger in raising too much the standard both of admission and of the Certificate Examination. For the majority of Elementary Teachers the intellectual standard is not so important as the practical ability to teach, still less so than sympathy with children and enthusiasm for the work.

iv. *Training College.* The most needed educational reform in some Colleges is a root and branch change in methods and in personnel. Staffs should be paid better, the inefficient purged; Principals of Voluntary Colleges might very well be appointed by L.E.A's after considering recommendations from the denominational body. The B. of E. should make more stringent conditions for grant, should raise the amount of grant and make it the same for both Council and Voluntary Colleges. The value of the Practising School is overrated.

v. *Training at Universities.* It is doubtful if this would give a wider outlook. Intending teachers would mix with each other; hostels may be narrower than a Training College.

vi. *Untrained Teachers.* Cannot be dispensed with for some time because of the prospect of a dearth under normal conditions. Far worse to have no teachers at all than to have less qualified ones.

vii. *General Points.* (*a*) It is an iniquity that the B. of E. will not recognize a graduate as a Certificated Teacher in an Elementary School unless he has passed the Certificate Examination in the Principles and Practice of Teaching. In a Secondary School the same teacher would be paid on the graduate scale. If approved by H.M.I. after one or two years of probation recognition should be allowed.

(*b*) Mr. Bolton King sees no alternative to the present system of financial assistance for training. Those who can afford to pay will not go into Elementary Teaching until conditions are better in the schools; the others cannot afford to train without help.

Letter from: F. Herbert Toyne, Esq., Secretary to the Brighton Education Committee, and Hon. Sec. to the Association of Directors and Secretaries of Education.

Brighton,
18th June 1923.

DEAR MR. JONES,

I am sorry I have been a long time replying to the invitation for suggestions on your training of teachers survey. Taking the report as a whole I strongly and definitely agree with the views expressed.

The following are my comments:

1. The Student-teacher period is certainly undesirable in the case of students who have taken an Advanced Course at a Secondary School, and have presumably reached something like the standard of an Intermediate Examination at a University, as it constitutes a serious break in academic work. The value of the practice in teaching gained is very doubtful, and is certainly infinitesimal after a teacher has been at work for four or five years.

2. I think that a fairly early date could be fixed for the abolition of subsidies before the training college stage, and that an effort should be made, though more slowly, to arrive at a condition when public funds meet about the same proportion of the cost of teachers in training as they do for other students at Universities and technical colleges.

3. Personally I do not regard the statement (as to the discipline in Training Colleges) as nearly strong enough. No doubt practice varies a great deal, but in most colleges I think that the students are treated too much as if still at school, and that they should be given more freedom to settle their own affairs.

4. In discussing probation the experience with regard to ex-service men might be worth noting. As you will remember, a certain number of ex-service men were passed as teachers with relaxation either of standard of attainment or of length of training, and were then placed on probation for one or two years. The Board of Education should be able, from this experience, to shed some light on the value of the probationary period.

Yours sincerely,
F. HERBERT TOYNE.

In a later communication Mr. Toyne adds, ' You are to be congratulated upon what will be a very opportune publication.'

Letter from: Miss Mercier, Principal of Whitelands Training College, Chelsea.

6th June 1923.

DEAR MR. JONES,

I have been much interested in your book on the training of teachers sent me from the Garton Foundation. Such a careful analysis of the present situation is very much needed, and it is indeed a mine of information.

I think we did disagree when you were here on the desirability of concurrent professional and academic courses. The concurrence is not so administratively tidy as the separation, but in my experience the strength of the Two-Year Course lies in that concurrence. To be successful the course must be so organized as to appeal to the student as one homogeneous course, the different parts must be closely correlated so that there is no distraction of interest. The University aim is an entirely different aim from that of the Training College. There the professional training should certainly follow the Degree Course, but what is best for

the University is not necessarily best for the Training College. Variety, with full liberty for experiment, should exist.

I wish very much that your valuable paragraph on p. 207 on the difference between training and experience could have a more conspicuous place at the beginning of the Report. Matters of training are often judged as if training and the acquisition of experience were the same thing, but they are essentially different, and the one is no substitute for the other. The probationary year for young qualified teachers is a step in the right direction, I think, and may help the various authorities to recognize that the young trained teacher begins to acquire experience only when his or her training course is over.

As I have not annotated my copy I am not returning it, but I will of course do so at once if it is required. I should regret, however, if I had to be separated even temporarily from such a valuable mine of information.

Yours very truly,
WINIFRED MERCIER.

Letter from: Principal David R. Harris, M.A., Normal College, Bangor.

19th June 1923.

DEAR SIR,

I am in receipt of your letter of the 14th inst. Owing to pressure of work I have not been able to complete my reading of the report on the Training of Teachers of which you were good enough to send me an advance copy. I may say that as far as I have gone I have been impressed with the general fairness and accuracy of the report. Any opinions which may be expressed are necessarily founded upon the personal experience and observation of your witnesses. My own experience, which has extended over a period of thirty years altogether, and has brought me into personal touch with two residential Training Colleges and three University Institutions, leads me to think that you have rather under-estimated the professional idealism which informs much of the work done in the Two-Year Training Colleges, particularly those which owing to recent foundation, the war, and other causes have been able to infuse a good deal of new blood into the personnel of the Teaching Staff. The extent to which tutorial arrangements are possible in a residential College, and the earnestness and thoroughness with which the vocational training of the student is carried out are further advantages which were far to seek in the Day Training Departments of our University Colleges, at any rate in my time.

The broader outlook and more liberal culture which attendance at University lectures ought undoubtedly to afford must be set off by the fact that the Elementary Teacher undergoing a Four-Year Course in a University College is practically bound to complete his degree in three years, as the fourth must be devoted exclusively to professional training. This limits the Day Training College Student to a Pass Degree in the great majority of cases, and this fact is at the present moment a matter

of serious concern to the Authorities of some of our University Colleges where the number of Day Trainers constitutes a very substantial percentage of the total number of students attending the University College.

I am wholly opposed to the Three-Year Course of concurrent training and graduation. It generally means shirking the former and cramming for the degree.

Yours faithfully,
D. R. HARRIS.

Letter from: F. W. Goldstone, Esq., Assistant Secretary, National Union of Teachers.

Hamilton House, Mableton Place, London, W.C. 1.
1st August 1923.

DEAR MR. JONES,

The critical survey of the ' Training of Teachers ' which you have prepared for the Garton Foundation is the most complete work of its kind I have seen. Such a survey was long overdue, and I congratulate you on the care and discrimination shown in your selection of suitable material. Having regard to the innumerable official documents and reports it is obvious you have consulted, the labour involved in compiling the survey must have been enormous. I have tested a number of your references and find that the information you have brought together is thoroughly reliable, and the treatment of the subject scholarly and competent.

I hope the book will have a wide circulation.

Believe me, Faithfully yours,
F. W. GOLDSTONE.

The following communications refer to particular portions of the Survey:

Letter from: James Malloch, Esq., Chief Executive Officer of the Scottish National Committee for the Training of Teachers.

Edinburgh, 18th June 1923.

DEAR SIR,

With further reference to our correspondence and particularly my letter of the 15th June, I am now in a position to forward to you the advance copy of your Report under the Garton Foundation which it has been my privilege to look over. I refer to the references and comparisons which you have made in your Report to the state of things in Scotland.

I have placed on the copy herewith returned some pencil notes for your consideration. They are not of very great consequence. I am interested in your remarks as to where and in what way and under

whom probationary service, to be real, should be given. You have there described in some measure an arrangement which I myself have suggested for the consideration of the Special Committee now engaged here in investigating this and other problems connected with the Curricula.

May I thank you for allowing me to look over your Report in draft, and to congratulate you upon it as an exhaustive, informative, and splendidly set out document ?

Yours faithfully,
JAMES MALLOCH.

The Assistant Secretary of the National Education Association, U.S.A., writes :

' I regret that I have not had time to study this chapter (on the United States) as carefully as I would like owing to the pressure of other work, but I have read it enough to feel that you have handled it very well indeed. The material you have used seems accurate, and you have covered the subject in an adequate manner. I trust this survey may be published soon, and I shall be happy to see it in completed form.'

A *professeur* at an *École Normale* writes :

' J'ai lu votre chapitre sur l'enseignement en France avec un très grand intêret. Il est clair, lumineux, et vous dégagez bien les qualités et les défauts de notre système.

En ce qui concerne les écoles privées, je crois qu'à l'heure actuelle il faut se placer pour les juger sur le terrain politique.'

The Principal of a Training College for Nursery School Teachers writes:

' I have been extremely interested in reading the enclosed proof, and especially in noting how clear you have made the salient features of the Nursery School movement and the preparation of teachers for it.'

A prominent member of the recently formed Institute of Handicraft Teachers writes :

' I have read through the proofs as desired and added certain comments which may be of service. I should be glad to know whether the report is to be printed for general circulation, and if so at what date.

Allow me to congratulate you on the very able summary you have made.'

2. Remarks by the Right Hon. Viscount Esher on Mr. Lance Jones's Book

This volume is brimful of industry and research, but through no fault of its author the English system of training teachers remains in great part unintelligible to the ordinary reader.

After reading it twice through, I understand the method of training a teacher in France, I realize the system in vogue in the United States, but I have not the foggiest idea how the majority of teachers under our

English system are selected and trained. While the French know what they require, and obtain it, we appear to be lost in a maze of well-meaning aspirations, that we call by words such as initiative, decentralization, and so on. If a lad or girl were to ask Mr. Lance Jones the simple question, ' How am I to become a teacher ? ', I tremble to think of the number of queries he would be forced to put to his questioner before he could give a lucid answer.

The historical survey, with which this volume opens, shows how there grew up in England (not so much in Scotland) a system of education that is no system at all. The subsequent chapters show the tinkering by Parliament at this tatterdemalion of a plan for nearly a hundred years, with results altogether incommensurate with the vast expense imposed upon the tax-payer and the rate-payer.

Matthew Arnold seems to have been the only human being connected with the Inspection of Schools who diagnosed correctly the reasons that underlie the failure and extravagance of popular education in this country.

It would be interesting to compare the total cost of educating French children up to 18 with the total cost of educating English children up to the same age.

It would be interesting to compare the results obtained.

It would be interesting to compare the status and capacity of English and French teachers in elementary and secondary schools. But comparison is impossible owing to the impossibility of clearing the ground of prejudice, of getting a common denominator either in objectives or even in terminology.

Any one who has had the experience of knowing the better and the lesser teachers in both countries can have no illusions on the subject, and no one who has had a chance of reading the letters of French and English soldiers during the War, can be in doubt as to the comparative results of national education in the elementary and secondary schools of both countries.

French teachers and their pupils, on the average, possess a knowledge of language and its uses, far superior to that acquired by their opposite numbers in this country.

This statement can, of course, be contraverted. One opinion on the subject is as good or bad as another, for the reason I have stated above, that no common understanding is possible until we have formulated certain clear definitions of what at any rate we mean by the terms we use. When I speak of the education of a teacher I mean one thing, when I speak of the education of a ploughman I mean something quite different. In neither case do I mean the capacity to play games, or to comprehend the Philosophy of Doubt, since neither form part of those standards or tests that can be applied by State functionaries whose business it is to see that the public get a fair and adequate return for the money they spend upon popular education.

The main difference between the educational systems of England and France is that whereas in England the Educational Authority is mainly composed of men and women who are amateurs of their subject, in France the education of the young is mainly controlled by persons who

are trained and experienced members of the Teaching Profession. Our system of education was rooted sixty years ago in denominationalism, and in the precepts of mid-Victorian commercialism. The Church catechism and free competition were the charters of our school system. The one has gone out of fashion, but the other still prevails with such force that even Mr. Lance Jones apparently believes in ' initiative ' and the running of one system of education in Staffordshire against another system in Cornwall.

Under our system of education, the schoolmaster, with the exception of a privileged few at fashionable public schools, occupies much the same position as Clergymen in the seventeenth century who were elbowed into the ditch, and when asked to dinner by the Squire, left the table before the sweets were served. In England (though not in Scotland) the average Teacher is not intellectually qualified, either by specific or general knowledge, to meet on equal terms the Clergyman of the Parish, the Business Man who has bought out the old Squire, or the Village Doctor who was trained at Bart's or in Dublin.

In no case have I ever heard of an elementary or secondary teacher receiving any mark of honourable distinction from the Sovereign of our Country on the advice of His Ministers, while in France there are village schoolmasters who wear the Legion of Honour.

In France the Head of a *Lycée*, a *Collège*, or an *École Normale*, is not only the intellectual and social equal of his neighbours, but is recognized as such, a distinction altogether out of the reach of a schoolmaster in England.

How can it be supposed that these matters are insignificant, that they do not exercise influence upon youthful pupils, that they do not act adversely or favourably upon the class of teachers as a class, by indirectly alienating from or enlisting into the teaching profession the most sensitive minds among young scholars.

It is easy to under-value, or even to scoff at, the French plan of a centralized educational system, under which the curriculum is settled, and education from the highest to the lowest grade is supervised and administered, except as to buildings, by experienced and professional teachers ; but it must be remembered that this system has created a powerful Hierarchy, while in England the teachers have not got beyond the phase of a Trades Union.

I should like to see a French Educationalist, such as M. Petit Dutaillis, live a year or two in England, examining our system by visiting our schools, our training colleges, and making the acquaintance of our teachers. I should like to see Mr. Herbert Fisher performing a similar functionary service in Picardy or Provence. And then I should like to see these two dispassionate authorities compare notes, and give their deductions to an astonished public.

After reading, as I have said, twice over Mr. Lance Jones's book, I personally—and not at all diffidently—am driven to conclude that our training system for teachers is based on some stupidly false analogy between the effect of Free Trade upon mental development and upon commercial prosperity, that there is no real touch or sympathy between the Universities, Ancient or Modern, and the unfortunate body of men

and women engaged in elementary and secondary teaching—that nothing has been done since 1823 to raise the status of these devoted people—that owing to a crassly stupid distinction between different forms of taxation, both in reality coming out of the same pockets, the most extravagant expenditure is lavished on Free Education—and the results, both as regards Teachers and Pupils, compared with those achieved in France at less cost, are unsatisfactory.

Mr. Lance Jones's book confirms me in the opinions I formed long ago, that in order to reduce the cost of Education in our country, and increase its efficiency, we should destroy its parochial character, by placing its direction and administration under a Minister of the Crown, advised by a Board elected by the whole body of Teachers ; that all inspection as well as Examination Tests should be in the hands of qualified Teachers appointed under the authority of the Minister ; that no school, public or private, should be independent of inspection ; that the Administrative Educational districts should be coterminous with University centres ; that the Head of every College and School should be qualified by a University Degree.

(Signed) ESHER.

28th May 1923.

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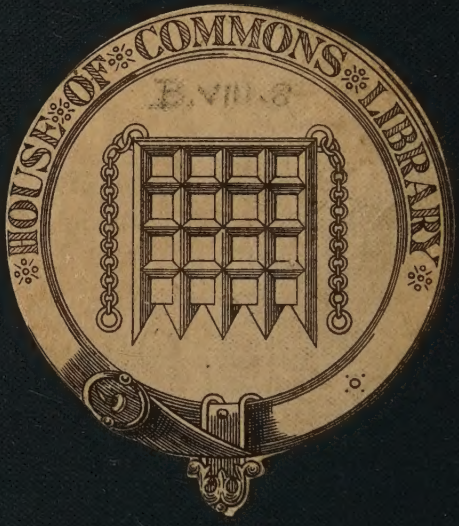
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